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NOTICE.—A *Literary Supplement* appears with the SATURDAY REVIEW this week gratis.

We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.

## NOTES OF THE WEEK.

The excitement in London last Wednesday about the supposed resignation of Lord Milner was the result of nothing but journalistic anxiety to score a point. Everyone has known for a long time that Lord Milner will not stay in South Africa longer than is necessary to start fairly the new order. He could not leave until the labour question was settled, for on it hung largely the financial position of the colony. Now that these difficulties are in the way of being got over, Lord Milner's retirement becomes a matter for definite consideration. His health demands that he should rest, and he would be unwise to delay resignation very much longer. That is precisely how things stand. Some gossip expressed this common knowledge in terms of unwarranted actuality, and a morning paper gave publicity to his undue precision. There was enough truth in the story for its author to be able fairly to say that the statement was only premature. It is unfortunate that it was ever made, for, many people taking it to mean Lord Milner's immediate resignation, such a statement becomes a disturbing element.

One inference, at any rate, was made which ought to be checked before it grows into something more serious, and takes the form of an announcement of fact. Lord Milner's resignation, it has been thought, could only mean immediate self-government in the Transvaal. Self-government was hardly possible with Lord Milner in South Africa, and so it appeared that Lord Milner was to make room for the new régime. We know, of course, there are persons in the Transvaal clamouring for representative government, and we need not pretend that the present order is without fault. But in unideal conditions we can only strike a balance, and, putting the possible benefit against the possible loss from an immediate change to self-government in the Transvaal, it seems to us that such an experiment would become the classical instance of the wild folly of which governments are capable. If it is desired to give every opportunity to corruption, to pro-

mote the success of the inferior at the cost of the better element in the population, to make the best possible opening for racial differences and old scores, by all means set up self-government without a moment's delay. British power in the world is suffering too much to-day from that premature insistence, mainly from home, on the régime of self-government in various parts of our so-called empire for it to be conceivable that the blunder could be repeated. We are glad to be sure that the present Government do not contemplate any such step.

General Kuropatkin's address to his army was certainly of an unusual nature. On the eve of an engagement many great generals have issued appeals to their troops which contained, at least inferentially, an announcement of strategic importance; but this order of the day, which contains as it were the policy of a campaign, differed from others since it was not followed by action so immediate as to deprive the announcement of value for the enemy. But the turn in the campaign exactly follows General Kuropatkin's earlier warning. At Moscow before he went to the front he foretold a long period of retreat, and urged on the Russian people "Patience, patience, patience". The date he then suggested has passed, but his address of Saturday last is conclusive that the second stage which he foretold has begun. We have no accurate information on the relative numbers of the two armies, but the Russian troops are now probably of sufficient strength to fight at least on equal terms with the "gallant foe". The phrase, which appears towards the end of the address, is selected as more likely to be General Kuropatkin's own than the treacherous enemy who are referred to in the preface; and from internal evidence it is not improbable that the order has a double authorship.

The two armies met very soon after the issue of General Kuropatkin's order, and the last few days have been absolutely filled with numerous and conflicting reports of the fighting. It is not possible to give a clear account of the action as yet, but official despatches from both General Kuropatkin and Marshal Oyama make it quite clear that the Russians have been defeated. It is not true to describe the defeat as a *débâcle* for the Russian army does not appear to have been outflanked, and it seems likely that it will be able to retreat north with, of course, very heavy loss. We have definite information that some forty to fifty Russian guns have been taken, but nothing further can be stated as to the losses on either side. Undoubtedly both Japanese and Russians have suffered very seriously.

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There will be a feeling of great relief throughout the country that the accident to the Duke of Connaught is announced to be of a less serious nature than at first it appeared to be. All the elements existed of a catastrophe which hardly dared be imagined; the heavy masses of the electric tramcar and the cumbersome "Janker" interposing themselves to the swift-moving motor-car. Apparently the accident was due to the cart collided with having no lights. When the Duke left Edinburgh Castle, where he had reviewed the troops there on the conclusion of his tour of inspection, it was sufficiently dark to make lights necessary for safety. It is said there was no breach of the law in the cart being without lights. If not there ought to be. The law ought to be general insisting on lights on all vehicles at nightfall, and not local depending on bye-laws. This at any rate is a clear lesson from what has happened, whatever else there may be to say when the affair has been investigated, as it no doubt will be, when the Duke and his chauffeur, who was also seriously injured, are sufficiently recovered to make explanations.

The little dynastic squabble over which Germany is agitating itself continues to grow. The Emperor's brusque little letter forbidding the army to pay the marks of royal deference to the present Regent roused so much feeling in Lippe-Detmold that Count von Bülow has thought well to explain that the Kaiser did not mean what he was taken to mean. But what either Count von Bülow or the Emperor meant is still obscure, and the dissolution of the Diet on its quarrel with Government adds to the obscurity. The Prince whose state makes a regency needful is old as well as mad. It would seem simple enough for everyone to recognise Count Leopold as Regent till the Prince dies, when the Federal Council, with whom the question lies, will be in a position to determine on the rights of succession. The legal point on which the decision rests is a nice one and affects, according to the more sentimental of the Germans, the prospective happiness of all princes. Count Leopold's house can only lose the right to succeed if it be decided that the descent on the mother's side is insufficiently noble.

It will be taken as something of a triumph for Lieutenant Bilse that an army order has been issued in Germany by which no garrison is to remain more than five years in one place. That Lieutenant Bilse's purpose was sound enough was everywhere acknowledged, but the readiness with which the necessary reform has been made by the army authorities suggests that a method less dangerous to the novelist and less opposed to discipline might have been discovered for disclosing the evil. The little garrison town was a byword in Germany, because the good-for-nothing officers were sent there and in a very great number of cases were kept out of sight as long as may be. Perhaps this shortening of the term of particular exile will also be associated with a policy of separating rather than lumping the less desirable elements in the German Army.

Spain appears to have been divided into the two parties of pro- and anti-bulls by the decision of the Government to disallow bull-fighting on Sundays. Letters of congratulation have gone to Señor Maura from most of the humanitarian societies in Europe to whom for years a bull-fight rightly has been as a red rag. But it does not do to be too sentimentally priggish because the Spanish people are angry at this condemnation of their popular amusement. The cruelty to the horse makes the sport peculiarly repulsive to us; but it at least demands a skill and courage which are not to be found in the rabbit coursing or starling shoots or even rat worrying which flourish under the rose all over England. James I. was more or less successful in preventing future generations from bear and badger baiting on Sundays, and we may hope that Señor Maura will be equally successful against bull-fighting. The difficulty in any such reform lies in finding a substitute amusement. People cannot be expected to give up abruptly and without complaint a sport which has been national for a great number of years.

Sir Wilfrid Laurier may have been speaking either as a good patriot or a good politician when he declared his fiscal policy at Toronto; but in either case his pronouncement, which he repeated at Guelph, is conclusive as to the general conviction among Canadian people. Long ago he complicated the issue by asserting that the preference already granted by Canada was intended as a step towards free trade, but in his urgent plea for preference in the Toronto speech he gave a very different basis for his creed; and English free-traders have so far had no such direct contradiction of their theories of colonial opinion. "The time will come" he said "for mutual trade between Britain and Canada. Canada is ready for it". What purpose is served by sneers at the "offer" of the colonies when the head of the less zealous party in Canadian politics speaks as plainly as this? In the same passage, as if to rub in his approval of Mr. Chamberlain's view, he impressed on Great Britain the duty of making the offer. "It is a question which lies in the hands of Great Britain . . . it is for England to pronounce." In putting a date to the pronouncement it is well to remember Mr. Fielding's prophecy that Canada must withdraw preference if the British proposal were much longer delayed.

These speeches of Sir Wilfrid are diplomatically ignored by Mr. Asquith, who has been engaged this week in the painful but necessary duty of cultivating his constituents. Fortunately for him, he is high enough in political rank to be able to restrict attention to constituents to the limits of a short series of speeches once or twice a year. No doubt the worthy people of East Fife would like more, at any rate some of them, but Mr. Asquith can fairly say to them that, if they had more, it could only be exactly what they had before. The Free Church part of Mr. Asquith's speeches is a domestic matter we need not go into, and the tariff portion need not keep us very long. Not that there was no weight in Mr. Asquith's arguments, but in economic discussion he always deals in broad principles. These general propositions we have discussed over and over again. From Mr. Asquith's standpoint they are right, but we believe his standpoint to be absolutely insecure. In thinking Mr. Chamberlain's proposal for a colonial conference more practical than Mr. Balfour's we agree with him. We hope Mr. Asquith's dismissal of the alien question as "claptrap" will be turned to the fullest account by the Conservative party managers. Such indifference to a serious social symptom of the day illustrates what many have observed, the less familiarity Mr. Asquith seems to have with the life of the lower social strata the greater he has with the higher.

Mr. Hewins could not have expected to cause so much distress in the Liberal party when he went to Cardiff the other day. At one point in his speech on fiscal reform he was interrupted by some ardent Free Importer who apparently knew all about Chinese labour. So Mr. Hewins told him to go to the Radical leaders and ask them whether it was a fact that they had given a pledge not to upset the present arrangement. We have no doubt that, without imputing dishonourable conduct to the traducers of Mr. Chamberlain, Lord Milner and every other Imperialist, Mr. Hewins had good reasons for putting his suggestion in the form he adopted. An incorrect report of an interview by telephone as to the significance of the "pledge" became the basis of a statement in a local paper about South African millionaires and the Liberal party funds, and the Liberal papers at once became as indignant as though the recent silence of the party leaders about Chinese labour had been satisfactorily explained at last. The curious feature of the Liberal comments on Mr. Hewins' question is the anxiety they show to explain away its significance, while some of them actually give reasons why in the circumstances a "pledge" of some kind would not be very extraordinary.

The fact is the Liberal party is in an extremely awkward position on the subject of Chinese labour. It is all very well to have a good cry for by-elections, but if the misdirected enthusiasm of subordinates remains unchecked and the party is more and more identified with senseless opposition to a necessary measure, what are the unfortunate leaders to do with some of their



influential supporters? They know very well that there has been on their side, for purely party purposes, the most flagrant misrepresentation of every question connected with Chinese labour, and they are fully aware of the serious consequences which would follow any attempt to upset the present arrangement. It is not necessary on these occasions to give "pledges" in the strict sense of the term or to sign contracts. It is enough to discuss without prejudice the practical bearings of the situation; to show more consideration to South African feeling than is desirable if the views of a constituency on tariff reform are required; and to convey the assurance, very necessary in the circumstances, that Liberal leaders still have some sanity of judgment. It remains to be seen how some of the ardent "anti-slavery" members of the Liberal party will act when they realise that, on Chinese labour, their leaders cannot possibly mean business.

Lord Grey has been associated with the British South Africa Company as intimately as was Lord Aberdare with Nigerian trade; and the letter of farewell which he wrote on giving up the directorship—*ad ampliora munera decessurus*—was worthy of his long connexion. The reading of it by Lord Abercorn at Monday's meeting of the company was a pleasant interlude. The letter contained scarcely a word on the subject of money, and certainly with Lord Grey the zest of getting and holding and developing that great country, from which the Government shied, has overcome any trading ambitions. In Rhodesia are more than a million natives. The prosperity and happiness of the country depend principally on how these natives, saved from the grosser forms of barbarity, are to be handled by the paternal Government. Lord Grey suggests that a conference of "the best and most humane scientists" should be held to advise on the policy of civilising the Kaffirs. The time has come when their society can no longer be supported on "the two pillars of polygamy and domestic slavery".

The Board of Trade export returns for September are the most encouraging sign forthcoming for a very long time past that business may shortly begin to wake up. Imports as against the same month last year are less by £2,377,000, whilst exports are more by £2,612,000. The fall in imports is mainly on food and must be artificial because it is certain we have not suddenly taken to providing a larger proportion of our domestic wants in that direction. The extent of the fall in imports would have been greater but for the increased imports of raw material and especially of cotton. This is the really satisfactory feature of the return. It means that Lancashire trade is beginning to recover, as is further proved by an examination of the exports. Roughly half the amount in the increase on that side is due to the improvement in cotton goods. Wholly or partly manufactured articles are substantially ahead—a feature on which the enemies of tariff reform at once seized as though one month's improvement disposed of all the facts and figures which have been forthcoming to prove that Britain's trade is suffering from foreign tariffs.

Subscribers to telephone companies ought to rejoice over the victory achieved on their behalf by a fellow-sufferer who was sued in the Lord Mayor's Court on Tuesday. A City firm was sued by the National Telephone Company for their annual subscription payable as usual in advance, the terms being six months' notice if the service were not required. This notice had not been given but the firm refused to pay because for a considerable part of the previous year at various times they had neither been able to "get on" to their customers nor these to them. We can imagine the "call of the wild" that had been going on over those lines as it goes on so regularly over others. The company protects itself by its agreement from actions for damages for interruption of communication, and if notwithstanding this having occurred the firm were bound, as it was argued, to pay their subscription this simply meant that the subscriber would have no remedy at all and would be at the mercy of the company. The Recorder would not admit such a proposition, and the jury having found the facts in favour of the firm he

gave judgment in its favour. If there is an appeal we hope in advance that the Recorder will be found to be right.

The so-called Welsh National Convention, which however is only a party organisation representing Mr. Lloyd-George's fanatical nonconformity, met at Cardiff on a day of last week and since then there has been issued the official manifesto inviting the adhesion of Wales to the plan of campaign. Party Liberalism is of course taking a hand willingly and the party organisations and the English nonconformists of the Dr. Clifford type have rejoiced in the presence of Mr. Lloyd-George as they did at Luton on Wednesday, when he dealt out the rodomontade of free trade and passive resistance in about equal portions to audiences whose most cherished pabulum is the claptrap of cheap patriots striking artificial attitudes. In conjunction with the Welsh National Liberal Council Mr. Lloyd-George is to organise the revolt of the Councils which means organising religious intolerance and disorganising and throwing into confusion the whole system of education. And nobody is to suffer but "the parsons". The scratch education to be given in Nonconformist chapels will be so superior that the Church schools will be depleted and "a whole generation reared in the healthy atmosphere of an energetic struggle for religious and civil rights". Will the Government take this meekly or will they try a combination of mandamus and the Defaulting Authorities Act?

Mr. R. J. Campbell's recent reference to the dissolute and brutal ways of working men was after all nothing more than another instance of the historic antipathy of nonconformity, as a middle-class institution, towards the working classes. It is undignified to be angry at such an exhibition of traditional feeling and the sensible way to treat it is excellently illustrated in a motion and amendment passed on Thursday by the London Trades Council. They decided it was beneath the dignity of the Council to take notice of the article because it really did not matter what Mr. Campbell said. Nor does it.

On one point we are able to agree even with Mr. Williams Benn. We have no patience with people who talk with a sort of hushed horror of London's debt of thirty-four millions! Neither the gross sum nor the expenditure which has amassed the debt is extravagant beside the needs of London. London is in numbers almost a nation by itself; and to express alarm at the amount spent on making it a worthy home for its citizens proclaims a want of dignity and patriotism as well as of imagination. It was a pity that the chairman's statement was not worthy of its thesis. To quote the success of the tramways as a reason for increasing the rate was a logical feat perhaps to be expected from the speaker's intellectual qualification for his office.

Everybody for good reason takes an interest in doctors and we have all enjoyed the accounts of the welcome given to the French profession by our own medical institutions during the three or four days of their visit. We take it for granted that the French visitors expressed a sincere admiration for the graver side of the many objects to which their attention was directed, and that the interchange of ideas will be of benefit to the art they practise. But by nous autres laymen the lighter aspects of the visit are more readily appreciated. We are proud of the very monotony of the statement in the reports that this and that British medico "speaking in French" proceeded to make himself instructive and amusing in that language. We like to see that the apology for maltreating the language was politely deprecated by a "Mais non". The "entente cordiale" has become a threadbare phrase, but we welcome the medical rendering of "l'entente cardiac" as a pleasant and appropriate variation. We apologised also with proud humility for our cooking. Probably however the two things which will remain to be cherished by our visitors is that they have seen something of "our famous London fog"; and that their representative colleagues sent from the Hôtel Cecil an answer to the message from the King which expressed his gratification with the success of the visit.

Oxford has received this week about a third of the Rhodes scholars. Most of them are already graduates of other colleges but the weight of learning implied in the term is in no danger of greatly raising the standard of Greats or even of Smalls, which the scholars in spite of their title have been compelled to pass. The social arrangements made by Mr. Parkin and the Oxford authorities seem to us admirable. The scholars have their own special don who has for the purpose given up all his official connexion with any special college. But this "tribune" represents the only link between the scholars. They are distributed evenly among the colleges, and so far as Oxford life is concerned their presence will make no conscious difference one way or another. For some of the picked men special arrangements for research degrees will be made, and the needs of the few German students have already set up some difficulties. Otherwise it is probable that Oxford will digest the new scholars, even when they reach the full complement of nearly 200, without much pain.

It has been very wisely decided not to destroy the Horneby cottages, that touch the house in which Shakespeare was born. Stratford-on-Avon—in spite of the theatre—is after all the place where Shakespeare lived and it is not less important to keep the whole town, which seems to have a natural quality of permanence of its own, like the Stratford Shakespeare knew as to go to iconoclastic lengths in preserving the birth-house. Shakespeare thought of England as a "swan's nest in an ocean". The phrase seems to have a natural application to the Stratford home of the swan of Avon, which lies in that Buckinghamshire plain wholly unconquered by the vulgarising of three centuries, a popular novelist and a millionaire. The two cottages contain good relics, remnants of Elizabethan woodwork and have close historic connexion with Shakespeare and his relations; cursed be he that moves the stones is a Shakespearean sentiment that we are justified in applying. One is astonished that eight of the committee should have voted for razing them and Sir Theodore Martin have spoken of them as "rotten old beams and walls". It would be a little difficult to find sixteenth-century work that was not old.

We might be tempted to ignore the Poet-Laureate's contribution to a definition of "progress", with which he amused the Leeds Institute of Science, Art and Literature on Wednesday last, were it not for a delightful touch at the end. "In conclusion, he was no preacher of pessimism. Great poets were the true optimists of our race." There is a delicious naïveté in this explanation of his hostility to pessimism. Mr. Austin sets one thinking whether Pye, Cottle, Robert Montgomery, Stephen Phillips were all optimists.

The "Times" articles on the fur trade, of which four have now appeared, raise a question of ethics which the "Times" should answer, if it can. As the articles are to be bound in pamphlet form and are to be procured only of Messrs. So-and-so (in big type) there is at least a strong presumption that they constitute an advertisement of the house indicated and bepraised in each article. If they are an advertisement and were paid for as such, to what is the "Times" committed by pledging its name through one of its staff to the independent investigation of the facts mentioned? Independence in such a case conveys much more than freedom from corrupt motive. How can you be independent if you have a beneficiary's interest in the article being written? Not only the cynical school would smile if a paper adopting this practice were to put the case baldly: "We received £10 for this paragraph, but ourselves made an independent investigation of the facts." But beyond this stone of offence, which is put in the way of weaker moralists who would follow the example set, the "Times" has set the fashion of a new and terrible form of pressure. Every advertiser will now demand equality of influence. Indeed we shall be surprised if the "Times" analyst is not presently writing articles—after independent investigation—on "pills and purity", with special reference, as it may be and according to the form selected, to colour or worth or smallness.

#### THE NEW PHASE IN THE FAR EAST.

A NEW phase of the war has begun in Manchuria. General Kuropatkin clearly states, in the remarkable order of the day which he has issued to his army, that he considers there are now sufficient troops at his disposal to enable him to assume the offensive. Other reasons have been assigned for the general advance of the Russian army, which has now commenced, but it is not probable that General Kuropatkin would undertake a forward movement, unless he believed that he would be able to carry it out successfully. Even while he was retreating from Liau-yang, he had evidently formed the idea of an early advance, as, in his report after the battle, he mentioned the wings of his army as if it were advancing instead of retiring, which excited considerable comment at the time. He has always maintained that the only course open to him was to retire gradually, inflicting as much loss as possible on the enemy, until he had received sufficient reinforcements to enable him to meet them with a numerical superiority. This plan he has, so far, consistently carried out, and now that he believes his army to be strong enough, it is only natural that he should take the opportunity of attempting the relief of Port Arthur. The Japanese have been steadily gaining ground in the siege, but they are reported to have lost heavily in their late assaults. We have received very little trustworthy information on the state of the garrison, but it is composed of good troops, and, though their losses have been heavy, they must have suffered much less than the Japanese. The facility with which boats containing supplies, and even ammunition, appear to be able to evade the blockading squadron renders it probable that the siege may be prolonged. General Stössel has again refused to surrender, and appears to be confident that he can hold out for some time longer.

Since the battle of Liau-yang the Russians have received large reinforcements, but the statement that 3,000 men are reaching Kharbin daily is evidently an exaggeration: up to 1 September about 240,000 men had been transported by the Siberian railway, which is at the rate of 35,000 men a month. It is not probable that, even if the improvements made to the line have enabled this number to be increased, the total addition to the Russian forces exceeds 50,000 men. The second Manchurian army, which General Gripenberg has been appointed to command, is being formed at Kharbin. It has rightly been decided that the army now in the field is as large as can be officially commanded by one man. It is stated that General Alexeieff is about to be recalled, and that he is to be succeeded by the Grand Duke Nicolas Nicolaievitch, but it is tolerably certain that General Kuropatkin will continue to control the general conduct of the campaign. He knows the country well, and thoroughly understands the Japanese, moreover he has gained considerable experience during the war, and has given proof of conspicuous military ability. The second army will no doubt act in unison with the first, and presumably its movements will depend upon the progress made by the troops now in the field. It could be used with effect on the left of the first army, but, if it moves away from the railway, transport will have to be organised for it.

We have even less information about the number of reinforcements that have reached the Japanese. They have formed a fourth army, and have probably more than made good the losses sustained at the battle of Liau-yang. The recent change in their military system will enable them to augment their available fighting forces by about 200,000 men. They have, however, been obliged to send a part of the reinforcements to Korea and Port Arthur. Their forces are not so favourably placed now as they were when General Kuropatkin was operating south of Liau-yang. General Kuroki then held a strong position on the Russian left, and, while directly covering his own base, was a constant menace to General Kuropatkin's line of communications. The effect was that General Kuropatkin was obliged to form front in two directions, and, while he was engaged with the Japanese forces advancing from the south, was always liable to have his retreat cut off by a successful attack from the east. The lines of advance of the Japanese



armies were perpendicular to their bases, so that, though a Russian success might have separated them, it would not have cut them off from their communications. The Japanese, however, did not take the full advantage of their favourable position. During the battle of Liau-yang General Kuroki crossed the Tai-tse river, and threatened General Kuropatkin's line of communications. This movement was met by a strong counter-attack, which nearly succeeded in cutting the Japanese from their line of retreat. The risk was very great, and the Russian reserves were too far back, so, when one of the Russian divisions had been overpowered, General Kuropatkin decided to retire, and withdrew, without further loss, to Mukden and Tieling. It was fully expected that the Japanese would pursue vigorously, and inflict heavy loss on the retreating Russians, but they were allowed to retire unmolested, and what promised to be a decisive success was turned into a comparatively sterile victory. The possession of Liau-yang is certainly of great importance, as it enables the resources of the country to be utilised, and the Tai-tse river offers a good line of defence, but the Japanese objective was the main Russian army, and that has escaped with less loss than they themselves have suffered. General Kuropatkin can now advance without exposing his line of communications, and, in case of a serious defeat, can withdraw to Mukden and Tieling, where a strong defensive position has been prepared. His flanks are still liable to be turned, but the force attempting the turning movement would render itself liable to be cut off from its line of retreat, as in the case of Kuroki's army at Liau-yang.

General Kuropatkin has commenced by a vigorous attack on the Japanese right, and has assailed General Kuroki's line of communications, whose army is based on Feng-hwang-chen, which is being connected by a light railway with Liau-yang. This line is very much exposed to attack from the north, and will have to be guarded throughout against the raids of the Russian cavalry. Two forces were sent. One, consisting of 2,000 cavalry, with a brigade of infantry, crossed the Tai-tse river about forty miles east of Liau-yang. It succeeded in cutting the communications, but they have been again restored. The other attacked Hsien-chwan, which is also on the river, further to the east, about twenty-five miles north-east of Sai-ma-tse. General Kuropatkin's probable object is to seize Pen-si-hu, cross the river there, and endeavour to cut the Japanese line of communications. Should he succeed in effecting the crossing the rôles would be reversed, and he will have to hold the Japanese in front, while he endeavours to turn their flank. In so doing he would give them just such an opportunity of acting against his flank as they afforded to him during the battle of Liau-yang. Much depends upon the mobility of the Russian army away from the railway. If they have to depend upon the line, there is not much scope for their movements; but, if they can organise a sufficiently large force away from it, considerable opportunities are open to them. The raids already made have probably caused a good deal of damage and annoyance, but the forces engaged do not seem to have been strong enough to produce any decisive effect.

There was every indication that Field Marshal Oyama intended to advance on Mukden, and he has probably taken into consideration the possibility of the Russians assuming the offensive. He has ordered a general advance to meet them, and made a counter-attack. The full weight of the Russian attack fell upon General Kuroki's army, which has remained strictly on the defensive, while Field-Marshal Oyama has concentrated the other two Japanese armies against the Russian centre and right, and is endeavouring to cut them off from the railway. This movement, if successful, will force the Russians to retreat. It is not known what troops General Kuropatkin has left north of the Hun river, but he has probably arranged for a sufficient force to protect his line of retreat, otherwise a Japanese success on his right flank might prove disastrous to the Russian army, unless the Japanese should again prove too exhausted to pursue. There are two good positions north of the Tai-tse. The first is on the heights between Yentai Station and the mines, and the second is nearer to the north bank of the river.

It is improbable that operations will be suspended during the winter. The cold is intense, but the roads are generally in good condition, and the country traffic is usually carried on. The present season is the most favourable for campaigning, and both armies appear to be taking advantage of it.

#### THE GOVERNMENT AND THE CHARTERED COMPANY.

THE affairs of the British South Africa Company, or to use the name by which it is most generally known and referred to—the Chartered Company—have long acquired an interest which extends far beyond the circle of its immediate shareholders. This body alone numbers no fewer than 40,000 persons at the present time, and it would be a moderate estimate to state that during the fifteen years of the existence of the company the number of bona-fide investors in its shares has been at least 60,000, whilst the total of those who have had a speculative interest during the same period is probably close upon 1,000,000. These figures alone are remarkable and everything in connexion with the company is on an equally big scale, recalling the expression of its founder that he dealt with "globular" figures. There is therefore no apology needed for referring at some length to the annual meeting held on Monday last under the chairmanship of the Duke of Abercorn, the president of the company. The object of the meeting was twofold. In the first place the report of the Board and statement of accounts were presented, and at an extraordinary meeting which followed the sanction of the shareholders was sought to create a further 1,000,000 shares and for the adoption of certain preliminary arrangements entered into between the company's agents and a syndicate for the purpose of underwriting 500,000 shares of the proposed issue.

Before however proceeding to a detailed examination of the finances of the company as shown in the balance-sheet, and most admirably and clearly explained by the president, we would make a few general observations on the relative position of the Chartered Company and its territories to the British people as an empire. We do so with no desire to drag in the overwrought word and in no spirit of jingoism, but the plain fact must be admitted that this particular corporation has passed into a much wider sphere of action than any similar joint-stock concern of modern times. The political significance of its being is so interwoven with its purely commercial aspect that it is necessary to consider its affairs as far as possible outside the atmosphere of the Stock Exchange, if one is to obtain a view in true perspective. The point we desire to emphasise is clear enough from an inspection of the map of Africa, and it is hardly necessary to do more than draw attention to the neighbours of the company. A wedge of German West Africa is driven in until it nearly reaches the Victoria Falls and to the north-east German territory again marches with the borders of Northern Rhodesia, whilst Portuguese territory forms the eastern and western boundaries. Stretching away to the north is the road to the great lakes and so to the Nile, a road destined we believe in time to become one of the world's great highways of commerce. This ridge, the very backbone of Africa, has been secured to England by the genius of Cecil Rhodes and the money of the shareholders of the Chartered Company. A further factor in considering the political importance of the Chartered Company is the development which is taking place in the Transvaal towards responsible government. The statements recently published as to Lord Milner's resignation in December are of course premature but it is quite reasonable to suppose that he will not remain for more than a year, and his departure would doubtless mark the establishment of an extension of the present system of Crown colony rule as a prelude to complete self-government. But with a representative system and a preponderating Dutch vote, the inclusion of a number of English members of the assembly becomes of paramount importance and it is from Rhodesia that this counterpoise may be obtained. Events may force the hand of the Government in the Transvaal and it may be excellent policy to buy out the Chartered Company and

to include Rhodesia in the electorate of the Transvaal. We do not suppose that the mere contemplation of the part they have assisted to play in the high politics of South Africa will reconcile those shareholders who bought shares at a high premium to the loss they have sustained in capital value, and we can make no attempt to encourage the hope that the loss may be eventually recovered, for, strongly though we hold that the Government should give a generous consideration to the shareholders when the time is come to take over the country, we much fear that the purchasing price offered by the Government will be less by many millions than the total sum spent by the Company.

We arrive at this conclusion from the belief that in many respects the administration of the country has been extravagant and the Imperial Government are unlikely to recognise the debt accruing from that source. The most satisfactory feature in the report under review is the evidence that strenuous efforts are being made towards bringing the cost of administration more into line with the revenue. Whilst Mr. Rhodes lived and was able to inspire the shareholders with something of his own breadth of treatment, there was little difficulty in meeting the annual deficits by the issue of shares at the substantial premium, but it takes time to economise by paring down parts of a scheme which had been deliberately adopted, without grave risk of endangering the whole policy. For some years the machine of government has been too elaborate for the requirements of the country, and the severe commercial depression which has existed since the war has brought this redundancy into greater prominence. The deficits—actual as regards the year 1902-3 and estimated for 1903-5—are shown in the following statement.

Total Revenue and Expenditure for the whole of the Chartered Company's Territories.

	Revenue. £	Expenditure. £	Deficit. £
1902-3	633,038	1,051,401	418,363
1903-4	677,447	1,000,033	322,586
1904-5	676,000	955,481	279,481

And the figures for Southern Rhodesia separately but included in the grand totals shown above are as follows:—

	Revenue. £	Expenditure. £	Deficit. £
1902-3	497,782	798,712	300,930
1903-4	513,200	739,097	225,897
1904-5	539,000	681,787	142,787

The deficits shown under the general head arise from the shortage in the Southern Rhodesia budgets, the excess expenditure over revenue in the northern territories, and the amounts to be provided under the guarantees for the railways, the latter item having accounted for £16,000 during the year 1902-3. It is improbable that any considerable improvement can be looked for in the northern territories where much development work still requires to be done, and the real test lies in the position of Southern Rhodesia, as with a revival of trade—the signs of which are much more promising generally throughout South Africa—the railways should earn their fixed charges. It will be seen from the above statements that there is a very considerable reduction anticipated in the deficit from Southern Rhodesia, showing clearly that the problem of cheaper administration is being taken in hand vigorously. The various items comprised in the budget for Southern Rhodesia appear to be based on a moderate estimate, and if a working arrangement can be arrived at between the Imperial Government and the company as to a reduction in the police force, which, according to competent judges, is much above the necessary strength, the large economy which would be thus effected should go far to furnish an equilibrium between revenue and expenditure. If this anticipation be realised, the situation becomes most interesting. The company will then be in a stronger position to negotiate with the Imperial Government, who may be, from the probable political developments we have indicated, better disposed to credit the company with a substantial sum for having borne for so many years the weight of an enterprise which may be truly described

as imperial in its conception and execution. We think the Government should assume its full responsibilities at the earliest possible moment, as we are convinced that such action would make for the ultimate good of all the States of South Africa.

### WINTER OF DISTRESS.

IT may be hoped, through the attention which will have perforce to be given to the relief of distress in the coming winter, that a thoroughly well devised and permanently established system will be thought out. Perhaps it is on account of the general discussion which has occupied the public mind over the state of trade and industry that the ominous indications of approaching distress have caused alarm a little earlier than usual. Every winter the same symptoms develop themselves more or less seriously, but it has not been the habit of public bodies, writers for periodicals or private individuals, to admit their existence until there was no escape from them. Distress is denied or minimised as long as possible, then it is confessed, and there arises the despairing cry that we have no efficient means of combating it. Objections are raised to voluntary efforts on a large scale because they encourage the vagrant and degraded classes still further to presume on charitable assistance for keeping their miserable souls and bodies together. Last year furnished an example in the processions of the so-called unemployed which have supplied this class of objectors with a text for many impressive sermons. Their protests have had considerable effect; and those who have been most active in establishing funds such as that of the Mansion House have confessed that they have been the means of as much harm as good. There has been so much reason for this view that it has been exaggerated. The attitude of mind which would dispense with good and charitable actions, because they may produce more evil than they remedy, is a dangerous one to the individual personally. Where distress has really to be relieved, or innocent worthy people to be left without any help other than the unblest help of the workhouse, there is injustice to the poor and an embittering of their feelings towards those who go free of the wretchedness they themselves have to endure. The effects will be felt afterwards in the jealous suspicions of workmen towards their employers, and the increased difficulties of avoiding or settling trade disputes, and other manifestations of class hostility.

Other classes of objectors are those who are alarmed at the proposals which are made for instituting public works, the capital being provided from the rates, and the sphere of labour constituting an encroachment on the operations of the individual capitalist. They object also that schemes are put forward in the hurry of panic, without having been well planned and thought out. These may be extravagant, wasteful, and therefore alarming, to the poorer classes of ratepayers whose ideals of keeping down rates are represented on the Boards of Guardians and the municipalities. They are ready enough to take alarm at the cry of socialism, though the decaying shopkeeper of the East End gets little by individualism, which takes the form, for him, of huge monopolistic stores which drive him into the bankruptcy court. What happens from all this is the defeat of schemes for engaging public bodies in a work which ought to be amongst their proper functions to be exercised without dispute on all such occasions as the approaching winter will offer. Between the two kinds of antagonisms everybody is bewildered, and public as well as private machinery for aid is paralysed.

Private or semi-public charities will be unable to meet the extraordinary distress which is now prevalent all over the country and will become worse with winter. Last winter doubts were felt as to the extent of it in London because it was complicated with the chronic mendicancy fostered by funds and indiscriminate almsgiving. This winter the case is plainer, for there is not a business man who does not know at what a low ebb his own trade is, who does not know how every employer is at his wits' end for money for wages, and how necessarily the industrious, ordinary working man at the base of the pedestal must be feeling all the weight



of the superincumbent load. We have before us carefully prepared reports from many large towns in all parts of England, representative of many of the substantial trades of the country, and the evidence of widespread and very serious distress is indisputable. The reporters who are in close touch with the trades in question compare the circumstances with other years and believe that this winter will be more serious than 1892 and 1893. Great numbers are working short time, and where the trades are organised the burden of supporting the unemployed falls on those who are only partially employed. Shipbuilding, ironworks and foundries, the boot and shoe trades, the building trades, the cotton trade, not mere casual occupations which usually break down in winter, all have the same account to tell of abnormal trade conditions and abnormal distress in consequence. The greater proportion of the persons affected are the married who have families; the children also who worked are out of employment; the number to be fed and clothed and warmed is the same and the income is stopped or greatly reduced. It is not surprising to hear that many have not known what it is to have a good meal for months. People in this position are often reproached for not providing for such emergencies. But it is as well to remember that, taking the working classes in bulk, not making the mistake of supposing they are all first-rate artisans, or in the highest grades of such employments as mining, their general wages do not allow of their doing this. Through the vicissitudes of trade skilled working men are being constantly reduced to poverty and rendered unskilled by new machinery and new methods. It is very much of a mockery to speak of working people saving where, as in one instance, during the whole of the present year the majority have only had fifteen shillings of wages per week and many not more than ten shillings. We need not multiply instances. But whatever doubts other people may profess, we are quite convinced of the exceptional misery which thousands are enduring and other thousands are being threatened with as time goes on. It is the consequences that ought to engage our attention.

The workhouse receives people when they have no longer a home; soup-kitchens and private charities by their doles prolong the process a little and delay the inevitable. Those who object to what they call socialism, meaning the organised efforts of municipalities and other local bodies to provide remunerative labour always in esse in proportion to needs, and always capable of expansion in abnormal times, should reflect that they may thereby avoid the creation of chronic paupers. Would it not be better to save the rates by preventing pauperism instead of uniting to support it after it has been made? This can be done if public opinion is sufficiently educated to its importance to apply a stimulus to administrative bodies and their officials. Parliament has provided plenty of powers for this purpose if the timidity of the public and the grooviness and inertia of officialdom are overcome. Though private schemes are inadequate to supply the whole field to be occupied, they have been useful in setting on foot the experiments which furnish to public bodies examples of right methods of procedure. So far as the question relates to the working-class poor with families, the reconstituted Mansion House Committee has solved the problem of finding remunerative labour without pauperisation for a considerable number of heads of families. We need not go into the details of the scheme by which this has been done, but the work of the labour colonies is there to furnish guidance to public bodies. These ought to carry further a system which has been thus initiated. It is their duty to set themselves to inquire what are the kinds of work which could actually be usefully undertaken without listening to political economists on the theoretical objections to provided public work. In the opinion of practical men there is much work that might be done and for which towns would be all the better, but which is put off instead of being taken in hand in hard times. But even if some of it were more or less unnecessary the cost would be less than keeping families in workhouses; and infinitely better from every other point of view. A good deal of the difficulty arises from obstacles placed

by the Local Government Board in the way of municipalities and guardians who would institute industrial works. Loans are necessary to find funds for wages and materials, and it is an endless matter going through all the preliminaries of getting the sanction of that anachronous department. Before the money can be raised the emergency has disappeared; but it has left its ruin behind it nevertheless. The first essential for promptly meeting such crises as the present is to re-create the spirit and the methods of the Local Government Department and its officials. They are now a drag on local efforts to meet these emergencies instead of being a stimulus and a guide. If they will not play the rôle voluntarily, all the more reason for public opinion to be aroused to the necessity for doing something which it does not enter into the mind of the Board to conceive. The case is very similar to that of the older prison system where hide-bound officialism resisted reform until the public mind became impressed with its iniquities. Then the crank and the treadmill gave place to other things of better economy and morality; and so it will have to be if we are to substitute remunerative labour for pauperism. In the meantime we regret that we are unable to expect any very useful results from yesterday's conference. The tone of Mr. Long's speech struck us as painfully unsatisfactory.

#### FIGURES OF THE FISCAL QUESTION.—IV.

WE proceed now to a comparison of the numbers engaged in manufacturing operations in other countries with those similarly engaged in the United Kingdom. For this purpose the Census returns are useful and will, so far as they permit, be employed. With this object it will be necessary to state the figures given in the table with which the last article closed in a somewhat different form. The method adopted is to compare, at different periods, the proportion per 10,000 of the population engaged in each of the undermentioned manufacturing groups.

Proportion per 10,000 of the people in England and Wales engaged in different industries.

	1861.	1881.	1901.
Agriculture ... ..	896	461	303
Building ... ..	235	264	302
Coal Mining ... ..	135	147	199
Textiles ... ..	457	351	276
Iron and Steel and Machinery	126	160	173
Tailoring and Boots and Shoes	198	148	173

Percentage increase in the proportion in each period over the preceding period.

	1881.	1901.
Agriculture ... ..	-43'5	-34'3
Building ... ..	12'3	14'4
Coal Mining ... ..	9'2	35'4
Textiles ... ..	-22'6	-21'4
Iron and Steel and Machinery	27'0	8'1
Tailoring and Boots and Shoes	-25'3	16'9

From these tables it follows that the agricultural industry now gives employment to nearly 303 per 10,000 of the population instead of 896 forty years ago, a diminution of 43½ per cent. in the first twenty years, and 34 per cent. in the second, or 62 per cent. during the entire period. This is due in a large measure to the great change from arable to grass farming which has been going on for several decades. The raising of stock requires a much less amount of labour than the raising of crops. To an even larger extent, however, it is due to the fact that even in those branches of agriculture which the British farmer has retained he has not increased the quantity of produce raised sufficiently to cope with the growing requirements of the increasing population. The amount of stock and dairy produce sold off the farms during the last thirty years has not altered appreciably. It has in no case increased at the same rate as the population itself; the additional requirements have had therefore to a great and growing extent to be supplemented with imported produce. In other directions the result has been still more disastrous. But we postpone the fuller discussion of the question of agriculture for a later article.

The building trade now gives employment to 302 out of every 10,000 of the population as against only 235 in

1861, and 264 in 1881. The rate of increase has been fairly steady, amounting to  $12\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. in the first twenty years, and  $14\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. in the second. It has been due in a large measure to the increased stringency of the housing laws, which have given power to local authorities to prevent overcrowding, and to order the demolition of buildings on account of their insanitariness; to the factory laws; and finally to the great expansion in our means of transport which have involved in their construction extensive clearances of slum areas in the large towns. This is corroborated to some extent in the census figures for the number of houses "inhabited" and "uninhabited" in 1861 and 1901. In the earlier year there were 3,924,000 such houses, while at the recent census there were 6,709,000, an increase of 72 per cent., the population having increased by 55 per cent. only.

The coal-mining industry now gives employment to 199 per 10,000 of the population instead of 135 in 1861 and 147 in 1881; the textile trades to 276 per 10,000 instead of 437; and the iron and steel, and the machinery and shipbuilding trades to 173 instead of 126 per 10,000. The changes in these proportions are due largely to the increasing use of machinery in the manufacturing trades, which has brought about a shift of employment from the textiles to the machinery trades; and also to the growing exportation of coal which is now many times larger than it was forty years ago. The numbers employed in the production of clothes for personal wear diminished by 50 per 10,000 from 1861 to 1881; but recovered to the extent of 25 per 10,000 between 1881 and 1901. The rapid increase in the use of machinery accounts for the diminution in the numbers employed in the first period; while the increased exportation of slop-clothing to the Colonies will account for the recovery in the second period.

The last four groups taken together show that in 1901 they jointly found employment for 821 per 10,000 of the population, as against 916 in 1861 and 906 in 1881. There has thus been a steady diminution in the proportions employed in these industries, and especially so in the last twenty years.

Let us now examine the corresponding situation in the United States. The "occupations" classification differs considerably in the two cases, but an attempt has been made by taking large groups to present figures as nearly comparable as possible.

Proportions per 1,000 persons aged 10 years and upwards in the United Kingdom and United States engaged in gainful occupations.

	PERSONS.					
	United Kingdom.			United States.		
	1881.	1891.	1901.	1880.	1890.	1900.
Agricultural Pursuits ...	102	86	72	210	193	179
Professional Service ...	20	21	23	16	20	22
Domestic and Personal Service ...	78	78	68	93	89	96
Trade and Transport ...	52	59	68	51	70	82
Manufacturing and Mechanical Pursuits ...	266	274	286	103	120	123
Miscellaneous ...	45	44	33	—	—	—
	563	562	550	473	492	502
	MALES.					
	United Kingdom.			United States.		
	1881.	1891.	1901.	1880.	1890.	1900.
Agricultural Pursuits ...	103	167	140	409	359	323
Professional Service ...	23	24	25	24	27	28
Domestic and Personal Service ...	8	8	9	129	109	120
Trade and Transport ...	105	119	136	104	133	147
Manufacturing and Mechanical Pursuits ...	391	401	438	181	200	199
Miscellaneous ...	85	84	61	—	—	—
	805	803	809	847	828	817

According to these tables 56 per cent. of the population aged ten years and over in the United Kingdom are engaged in some form of "gainful" employment, as against about 50 per cent. only in the United States. This is no doubt due largely to the smaller extent to which female labour is employed in that country. Indeed this is seen very clearly to be the case in the second table which refers to males only. The proportionate number of males employed is much the same in

the two cases, being for the latest Census Return 809 per 1,000 in the case of the United Kingdom, and 817 per 1,000 in the case of the United States.

The distribution of employment among the population generally and especially among the male portion, is, however, very different. We are at once struck with the difference in the proportions engaged in manufactures and agricultural pursuits in the two countries. The number of males engaged in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits were 438 per 1,000 males in the United Kingdom and only 199 in the United States. The numbers engaged in agriculture were 140 in the United Kingdom and 323 in the United States. The difference need cause no surprise, however, if it be remembered that the United States exports enormous quantities of agricultural products, while the United Kingdom exports only manufactures. The figures are remarkable as illustrating in definite terms, what was already known vaguely, the effect which the character of a country's international trade has on the distribution of employment within the country.

Despite every care which has been taken in the construction of these tables we would deprecate any conclusions being drawn from a comparison of the absolute numbers for the two countries. Different methods have been employed in the carrying out of the censuses, and the "occupations" classifications are known to be different. It is more reasonable, however, to compare the rates of change which have taken place. We find then that in the United States the number of persons engaged in agriculture has diminished by 10 per cent. since 1880, the diminution being greater among the male population, where it reached 21 per cent. The corresponding proportions for the United Kingdom were 30 and 28 per cent. respectively. In manufacturing and mechanical pursuits the proportion for both sexes has increased in twenty years by  $7\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. in the United Kingdom, and by 20 per cent. in the United States. Among males only (in this case the "miscellaneous" group should be added to the "manufacturing" group, since they are known to consist of persons who would be classed with manufacturing &c. in the United States census) the increase has been less than 5 per cent. in the United Kingdom and 10 per cent. in the United States.

One other test may be applied; adding together those engaged in providing absolute necessities in the two countries, which will be represented approximately by adding the figures in the agricultural, trade and manufacturing groups, it is found that in the United Kingdom the number of persons so engaged has increased from 420 to 426, or by  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. in the last twenty years, as compared with an increase from 364 to 398 or  $9\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. in the United States.

We propose to deal with Germany in a similar manner in the next article.

### THE CITY.

THE rise in the German bank rate to 5 per cent. caused a temporary dislocation of rates in Lombard Street and had some effect on the quotation for the Funds, but although the result will be that gold will be diverted to Germany instead of coming to us, the general position is so strong and our markets are so much more independent than they have been until recently of foreign money, that it is not likely that any serious inconvenience will be caused: the fact, however, may be regarded as a reminder that the plethora of money in the last quarter of the year foretold by the financial press may not be so certain of fulfilment, more especially if the activity in New York continues at the present rate.

The issue by the Municipality of Capetown of a 4 per cent. loan of £368,550 at  $98\frac{1}{2}$  was a pronounced success the lists having been closed several days before the advertised date. The investment is unquestionably excellent, but it is to be hoped that Capetown and other South African cities may not again apply to the London market for a considerable time as the comparative ease with which money has been obtained here tends to obscure a proper appreciation of the future in their financial undertakings such as we have seen in our own corporations. We notice that the municipality of



Pretoria has acquired borrowing powers and it is probable that a loan may be raised here by public issue before long; at present there is no debt, so that an issue would doubtless meet with a favourable reception.

The traffic returns of the Home railways show an increase in most cases and so far the fact is encouraging but there is a lot of leeway to make up if the figures of last year are to be reached: the Scotch lines, more especially the North British and Caledonian, are the most satisfactory. There has been a continuance of small investment buying in the prior charges.

The general volume of business in the speculative market shows an increase on the whole, although there has been a considerable amount of profit-taking in American rails, in spite of which that section has continued its upward movement. For the moment the pendulum has swung to the Kaffir market, which has had quite a busy week. It opened with anxiety as to the effect of the Chartered Company meeting, and although there was some disappointment at the lack of any official statement as to the recent discoveries of banket reef, the feeling was not lasting, and indeed the rumours of the impending resignation of Lord Milner—which would have had a most depressing effect a few months ago—were practically unnoticed. But with all the shouting, each particular financial house beating his own particular drum, it was apparent that the British public were not buying. Rather indeed were they selling to the brokers who represented German interests and to the Paris arbitrage houses. The Germans have made a lot of money in American shares and are in a better position to take advantage of the undoubted progress which is steadily taking place at the Rand. There are already signs that with any sustained activity the promoter is ready with so-called mining propositions for introduction by the methods which have become identified with the South African mining market. The introduction is effected usually without any prospectus unless a few details printed for market circulation can be so styled, and the jobber who is concerned only with the amount of shares he can sell protected by the call he stipulates for from the "shop", proceeds to "make a market". In the result a number of unfortunate people are left with the shares and the promoter grows fat on his profits. It is a marvel that the Stock Exchange Committee who see transactions of the questionable nature described carried out beneath their eyes cannot devise some method which would safeguard the interest of the public other than the present rules by which a special settlement is granted.

The prospectus of Kynoch Limited in respect of an issue of £300,000 4 per cent. debentures redeemable at 105 at any time after 1914 on six months' notice by the company, is a clearly drawn document which satisfactorily establishes the value of the security offered. The debenture is a floating charge over all the assets of the company valued at £1,462,000 subject to a small mortgage of about £20,000: the total profits of the company for the past seven years amounted to £547,687 and taking the average it is seen that the interest to provide for the present issue has been covered seven times over. The company has power to issue debentures equal in the aggregate to half the issued capital standing at present at £870,370 with an authorised capital of £1,000,000, so that assuming the present earning power to be maintained the interest on the debentures is more than four times covered, even when a further £200,000 is issued at a later date. The assets to be pledged, including 1,845 acres of freehold land, are valued at £1,462,000 and on this basis the investment appears to be of a satisfactory nature.

#### LATEST DISCOVERIES AT SUSA.

WHEN through the enlightened liberality of the Shah the whole of Persia was thrown open to France as a field for scientific research, no better place could have been chosen for carrying out the archaeological part of the great work than the tell covering the spot where Susa once stood, and which has been explored now for the last seven years by the French

delegation under M. de Morgan, Father Scheil, M. Lampre, and their learned staff.

The excavations, conducted in the most scientific and methodical manner, have yielded already such a harvest as no enterprise of a similar kind, public or private, can boast of, ever since man began to interrogate the soil as to his early history. The code of laws which king Hammurabi of Babylon has had engraved on a huge block of diorite nearly four thousand years ago—when Abraham must still have been alive, and full three centuries before Moses—is one of those monuments which mark an epoch in the history of civilisation: its discovery alone would be sufficient to put M. de Morgan's achievements on a rank by themselves.

Up to four or five years ago, the only Susa with which we were tolerably well acquainted was the Achemenid Susa, as connected with Cyrus, Darius, Xerxes, and their successors, down to Alexander of Macedonia. Of Shushan, the Elamite Susa, and of Elam itself, we scarcely knew anything at all, beyond the scanty information in Genesis xiv. relating to one of Elam's periods of power at the end of the third millennium B.C.—and the fierce account of its overthrow by Sennacherib and Assurbanipal in the course of the seventh century, as supplied by the two powerful Assyrian conquerors' songs of victory.† All this is changed now, and Father Scheil is fully justified in prefacing his publication of the inscriptions found by the delegation with the words: "Ici commence l'histoire du pays d'Elam". In fact, these four volumes of cuneiform texts, deciphered, translated and published by the learned Dominican between 1900 and 1904,‡ give us already a nearly uninterrupted sketch of the many vicissitudes through which Elam has passed, from the beginning of the fourth millennium B.C. down to Cyrus and the Achemenids; they make us witness under the vivid light of contemporary documents the everlasting struggles between the mixed peoples of Anzan and Shushan and their Chaldean and Assyrian neighbours—and their respective periods of domination and subjection—through a series of governors (patesis or sukkals) and kings—beginning with Ourilim, who was patesi of Shushan towards 3800 B.C., down to Nabu-naid, the last king of Babylon and Susa, de-throned by Cyrus in 539 B.C.

Together with these historical texts, engraved on clay, on stone, or on metal, the soil of Shushan has been yielding an uncommonly rich harvest of works of art and craft of every description, illustrating and completing the written evidence. Most of the sculptures have got their own inscriptions, bearing witness as to the events which the monuments record, and sometimes as to their own fortunes. Such is the case with the magnificent stone relief of Naram-Sin§—perhaps the finest piece of sculpture ever found outside Hellas—which has got a double inscription, one in Semitic Chaldean, contemporary with the stela itself, and relating its erection by the powerful king who ruled over Chaldean Agade towards 3750 B.C., the other in Anzanite, recording the transfer of the monument to Shushan 2,600 years later, by king Shutruk Nahunte of Anzan-Shushan (twelfth century B.C.), who dedicated it to his god In Shushinak as a trophy of his victories over Babylon and Chaldaea.—It so happens however that till last year the greater part of the more important works of art unearthed were spoils of war, carried home from abroad like the stela of Naram-Sin and the Code of Hammurabi itself, by the masters of Elam, and taught us little about Elamite art proper. Last winter's campaign has turned the scales by bringing to light a series of monuments of paramount importance, the purely Elamite origin of which cannot be doubted. They will not be exhibited to the public

\* See "Saturday Review," June 4, p. 723.

† The original cuneiform inscriptions are at the British Museum.

‡ "Mémoires de la Délégation en Perse," publiés sous la direction de M. J. de Morgan. Paris: Leroux. Tome II., Textes Elamites-sémitiques, publiés par V. Scheil, 1900; Tome III., Textes Elamites-anzanites, id. 1901; Tome IV., Textes Elamites-sémitiques, id. 1902; Tome V., Textes Elamites-anzanites, id. 1904.

§ Figured in the first volume of the "Mémoires," pl. x. and provisionally exhibited in the lower Chaldean room at the Louvre, together with the Code of Hammurabi, and some other of the more important discoveries made between 1898 and 1902.

till the new Elamite gallery, now in the course of arrangement at the Louvre, is ready. In the meantime, thanks to the kindness of the members of the delegation, I have been granted the privilege of viewing their new treasures, and of describing them summarily for the SATURDAY REVIEW previous to their publication in the next volume of the "Mémoires".

Prominent among all, as a masterpiece of art in itself, stands the bronze life-size statue of Napir asu, wife of king Untash GAL,\* who reigned over Anzan and Shushan towards the sixteenth century B.C. The statue, which is complete but for the head and left arm, is identified by a cuneiform inscription in Anzanite language, which Father Scheil interprets as follows:

"I (am) dame Napir asu,  
wife of Untash GAL.  
I, dame Napir asu, wife of Untash GAL (say):  
he who should take hold of my statue,  
he who should carry it away, he who (my) inscription  
should destroy, he who my name  
should scratch out, o king god GAL, o Kiririsha  
o In Shushinak the great!  
may he be damned! o Nahhunte sublime!  
may he not acquire a name, progeny may he  
not obtain! upon him (?) o Bêltiya!  
o gods powerful and great!  
may you dart!

This is the offering of Napir asu:  
60 qa of bread (?), 130 . . . . a jug of brewed drink  
. . . ."

The queen is shown standing, her elbows close to the body, and her arms folded over the waist, bending slightly forward in a most easy and natural attitude. Her dress is rather complicated: it consists first of a long gown of some costly stuff, studded all over with minute ring-shaped ornaments, representing embroidery, or perhaps small golden spangles sewn on the tissue; the gown has short sleeves, ending a little above the elbow, and fits tight on the bust and upper part of the arms; it broadens out, bell-shape, under the waist, and is trimmed below with a very high fringe with thick undulated locks forming a sort of flounce terminated at the top by an embroidered stripe. Below the waist, the gown is concealed half-way down at the back and sides under a short skirt of light fabric plaited into straight channelled folds; in front, slightly to the left,† a broad richly-embroidered sash, trimmed on the right side with a thick twisted fringe, comes down as far as the flounce from under the folded arms. The upper part of this sash is doubled back at the waist, and ends with a fringe, apparently of the same material as the main one, but with locks gradually lengthening from the inner to the outer side, thus giving it the appearance of a broad triangular wing, bent to the right. The inscription is engraved in the right corner, between the sash and the flounce. On the shoulder, a piece of jewelry, perhaps a large pin, with a seven-leaved palmette at one end, holds an embroidered stripe—very likely adorned also with jewelry—which runs straight along the upper part of the arm, and twists round the naked elbow. The lady wears four plain bracelets on her right arm, near the wrist, and three rings on the annular of her left hand. The whole appearance of the dress is wonderfully like a dress of our days, and quite unlike anything else in antique art.

The artistic merits of the statue are of the very highest order, combining as they do sincerity, truth to nature and style, to a degree hardly known in any other piece of sculpture found as yet in Chaldaea or Assyria. Notwithstanding the sad mutilations it has suffered, it gives a wonderfully vivid impression of life, akin to the one one feels before those two other masterpieces of naturalistic art, widely different as to

time and country: the Scribe at the Louvre and the Charioteer from Delphi. The workmanship is quite on a par with these in æsthetic merits, and shows a complete mastery over all the secrets of bronze-casting. An interesting peculiarity must be noted: the statue was cast hollow, but queen Napir asu, probably not relying exclusively on the imprecations in the inscription to keep away robbers and plunderers, took the precaution of having a kernel of bronze cast inside the frame, which now forms one solid mass of metal, weighing 1,780 kilos, or about one ton and three quarters. This tremendous weight prohibited Assurbanipal's soldiers from carrying the statue away as a whole, when they sacked and plundered Shushan in 640 B.C.—but did not prevent them from chopping off as much of the metal as they could, viz. the head, left arm and shoulder, and portions of the lower part of the dress.

The process of bronze-casting on a big scale seems to have formed a special feature of Elamite craft. Whilst no large cast-bronze monument has ever been found either in Chaldaea or in Assyria,\* the present excavations have already brought to light, besides queen Napir asu's statue, four other bronzes of exceptional size and unquestionable Elamite origin. Two of these are sanctuary stiles, one over fourteen, the other about eight feet long, in the shape of round columns with rectangular butt-ends, the shafts being respectively seven and nine and a half inches in diameter. The shortest and thickest one, unearthed last winter, supported originally several figures—also in bronze—fixed upon the shaft, but of these mere stumps are to be seen now. They both bear long dedicatory inscriptions in Anzanite, of which only the one on the first stile discovered has been deciphered, the other one not having been cleaned yet. This inscription shows the stile as having been erected by Shilhak In Shushinak, king of Anzan-Shushan, to replace a similar stile which "the ancient kings had wrought and placed [in the temple], and [which] had gone to ruin". Shilhak In Shushinak is the second son and successor of king Shutruk Nahhunte, whom I have already mentioned in connexion with Naram-Sin's stela and Hammurabi's Code, and who established the supremacy of Elam over Babylon and Chaldaea towards the end of the twelfth century B.C. Shilhak In Shushinak's inscription shows that the casting of large bronze monuments must have been practised at Shushan from time immemorial: on the one hand, bronze does not "go to ruin" in a few years or even centuries—on the other the list of "ancient kings" whose buildings Shilhak In Shushinak restored—recorded in another of his inscriptions—goes back as far as Idadu I., who ruled over Anzan-Shushan during the early part of the fourth millennium B.C. The second stile has very likely been dedicated by the same king, as the inscription when deciphered would probably show.

The next large bronze is a huge oblong sacrificial table or altar † (nearly five feet long) encircled within the folds of two big serpents, and supported by five figures, unfortunately mutilated beyond recognition. No inscription is to be seen on what remains of it now, but it very likely belongs to the same time as the stiles, and may be the "tetin" or altar referred to in Shilhak In Shushinak's inscription as having been restored by him together with the stile.

Last among the big Elamite bronzes comes an important fragment ‡, a little over three feet long, of a very large relief with an Anzanite inscription mutilated also, and giving no key as to its exact date, which may be any time between Untash GAL and Shilhak In Shushinak. The mutilations which these bronzes have undergone afford a striking illustration of Assurbanipal's savage boasts of plunder and destruction as recorded in the inscription in the British Museum.

I propose to describe some of the other monuments in a further article.

A. VAN BRANTEGHEM.

\* The special deity hidden under the ideogram GAL (=the great god, or the greatest of gods) has not been identified yet: it may be Bel or Hum. Untash means "has made," GAL being the subject of the verb.

† The last two lines, detailing the items of the offering, contain a few signs or ideograms which Father Scheil—who is the first, let it be remembered, to have succeeded in deciphering Anzanite inscriptions—has not mastered yet.

‡ The terms right and left are used here in reference to the figure's own right and left.

\* The fine bronze reliefs from Balawat, now at the British Museum, are not cast, but beaten, and are mere "appliques" which were nailed on the wooden gates.

† Figured in the first volume of the "Mémoires", pl. XII.

‡ *Id.* pl. XIII.



## WATER-COLOUR AND DRAWING.

*Cotman at the British Museum—The Leicester Galleries.*

DURING the Chantrey investigation it was suggested by one witness that in all probability water-colours were not intended to come within the scope of the Bequest, which included only painting and sculpture, because Chantrey would have adhered to the old usage by which water-colours are drawings and not paintings. It was plausibly replied to this that we have the evidence of the titles of the two water-colour societies for a conflicting usage, since their members style themselves *Painters* in water-colour. Whatever may be the truth about Chantrey's intention, there can be little doubt that these societies adopted the title with a distinct innovating purpose. It was their object to gain for water-colours an importance and a price comparable with the importance and price of oil-paintings, an aim in which they were successful enough. Unfortunately involved in this policy was the destruction of the water-colour art as it was practised by its masters. An attempt was made to rival the strength of tone and elaboration of modelling easily attainable in oil, with the result that water-colours became dull, dry and false imitations of oil-paintings, losing all the charm that belongs to line and stain upon paper. A concomitant of this policy was the rule in force at the chief exhibitions of the water-colour societies, at the Royal Academy and at the provincial exhibitions that follow its lead, requiring water-colours to be framed close with gold mounts, thus making them outwardly differ as little as possible from oil-paintings. This practice, which aims at obscuring the paper material of the water-colour, reacts on the work itself, and almost compels a forcing of tone. Till the rule is rescinded, the exhibitions in question will have the effect of perverting the art and of keeping many artists at a distance. I do not pretend to lay down any pedantic rule. In view of certain triumphs of Turner, and of other painters here and there, it is impossible to say at what point beautiful elaboration in water-colour becomes impracticable; there may be individual successes obtained in the teeth of the general logic of method, and by an idiosyncrasy of the artist obtainable by him in no other way. In the matter of mounting the artist should be free to choose a gold mount if he prefers it. But there can be little question that the peculiar charm of transparent water-colour lies in preserving the elements of direct line and wash, and if these do not survive all elaboration the artist sacrifices them at his peril. If he wishes in water-colour to *paint*, his proper method is body-colour or gouache, as in the method of sketching so brilliantly developed by Mr. Brabazon from one of Turner's practices. Once more let me guard against pedantry. There is no hard-and-fast line to be laid down between transparent water-colour and body-colour painting. Many of the colours called transparent are themselves body-colours (the cobalts, for example). What is certain is that one peculiar charm lies in transparent wash-drawing and another charm in opaque wash-painting. The fatal thing in most hands, the practice that should be discouraged by teachers and societies of artists, is the stippled work that loses all relation to line and wash, has no charm of material, and is quite false in those elaborate effects of tone and value it pretends to.

All this is illustrated by two exhibitions now open. At the British Museum the Print Room authorities have arranged, in their exhibition gallery, the splendid series of Cotmans lately acquired, along with some examples, like the splendid "Durham" already in their hands, and pieces by other artists of the Norwich School. Cotman, in his early water-colours, is a master of the pure style. He had not the range of Turner, and did not meddle with things through which Turner pressed occasionally to splendid success, but also bordered elaborate failure. He comes after Turner, and in his exemplary work isolates that part of Turner's art which can be surely controlled. He forswore the hunger and thirst for infinity and the struggle with materials, and temperately chose his ground, bringing light and shade and colour to the

terms of the wash. Drawing, tone and colour are all simplified, with concentration on massive design and flat harmonious washes. Mr. Binyon, who has written so well of Cotman's work, goes too far when he represents him as aiming at a Japanese treatment of shadowless colour-spaces. There is always shadow in Cotman's drawings; it is an integral part of his design. What he does is to omit the modelling-shadows over small spaces like slim trunks of trees, and reserve it for broader divisions. Cotman did not escape the dangers of the stylist; in his later work he fell into an ugly mannerism of colour. His finest things are not his most conventional. The "Greta Bridge", one of the most beautiful water-colours in the world, is, through all this tact of simplification, a convincing natural effect, the lights and colours of rain and cumulus clouds, and not only that, but the Yorkshire variety of the effect. The balance is perfect here, of natural beauty and consideration for the means of art.

But I delay over one side of the illustration and must turn to the other. At the Leicester Gallery are on view the water-colours of a well-known collector. It is an indiscriminate collection, and surprisingly so to those who know the collector's reputation, but therefore excellent for our purpose. The painter who predominates is Mr. Walter Langley. Mr. Langley is the flower of the Water-Colour Institute. He does perfectly what the majority are trying to do. His technical skill is amazing; immensely greater than anything that Cotman found necessary; the wonder of a Cotman lies in beautiful choice, its difficulty in the reserves and decisions made; its technique is quite easy. His little painting of a fisherman is comparable to a Meissonier; unflinchingly carried out in its minute realising and kept clean through all the mistaken process of rivalling oil-painting in water-colour. The same thing is done on a larger scale in several pieces, one of which appears to be the original of Mr. Bramley's "Hopeless Dawn", for it deals with the same subject and apparently the same models and is dated six years earlier. But at the end of it all, how little is the labour repaid! The photographic elaboration of modelling, the carefully realised textures are results destructive of the pleasure the eye seeks first and foremost in water-colour, the wash-drawing on paper. When a great designer, like Rossetti, overrides this first charm, we forgive him, because we find a pleasure in the design of form and of colour which is the end of his elaboration. But when the aim of the elaboration is photographic reality there is no such second issue raised. Another example in the gallery will bring out this point. Mr. Swan's immense water-colour of a lion commands our respect for certain qualities of design; but its scale is such that the wash ceases to have charm, it becomes a weak method of obtaining tone. On the other wall is a small lioness by Mr. Swan definitely drawn in washes, not rubbed laboriously into form, and how immeasurably better it is!

There are one or two other good pieces in the collection. The De Wint called "A Pleasure Party" is one of those in which he has not added colours to his greyish paper that it will not bear, but just plotted out the chiaroscuro of his scene with the voluminous wash and drag of his brush. A tiny David Cox, "Crossing the Sands", has an admirable and delicate sky, the other, on the first wall, is the wrong kind, sloppy-pretty, with a lazily conventionalised sky in which the blue of cloud-shadows is the same as that of the cloudless spaces. Compare with this the Tom Collier, "Hastings", where the painter has not disdained to consult Nature, and appreciate the greater beauty. It is like a Boudin.

In the adjoining gallery are drawings and paintings by three men with whose work I have dealt at intervals for some ten years, Messrs. Conder, Rothenstein, and Charles Shannon. The view I have expressed of the place they take in their generation now seems to be generally shared, except by the strange beings who regulate our public collections (no one of the three, I think, has been touched by the spilt funds of the galleries of his native country). Mr. Binyon, in a note to the catalogue, rightly rebukes the habit of calling men "promising" who have already to their credit so much admirable performance. Mr. Conder, to speak

of one only, is the painter of the most beautiful fans that have ever been produced in Western art. Here is water-colour applied to another material with as fine a sympathy as Cotman's.

I may add to this note mention of an interesting exhibition at the Baillie Gallery including pastels by Mr. Francis Dodd. Mr. Dodd is known to careful critics of the galleries, as one of the best of our rising portrait painters. In these pastels there is much to admire, especially some grim bulks of suburban churches in Manchester.

D. S. MACCOLL.

#### REALISM IN MUSIC.

WHEN that I was but a little tiny boy (there ought to be an "an" somewhere there, but I don't know where to put it) they used to tell me at school that in Shakespeare's time there was no such thing as stage scenery. They used to punish me severely if I didn't know that someone used to stick a piece of paper with writing thereon against the background, and those of the audience who could read learnt that "This is the forest of Arden" or "This is a battlefield". The plan doubtless had its advantages: there was no need for scene-shifters and there were no long waits to set the scenes; but for those who could not read, and I am told there were many in those days, it must have had its disadvantages also, for if what you conceive, in your unlettered state, to be the forest of Arden was a bedroom in Macbeth's castle—how then? I have never attended any of the performances of Mr. Poel's society, and if placards are substituted for scenery I have no desire to, and I am convinced that Shakespeare would give them a very wide berth. Did he not satirise precisely that procedure in the "Midsummer Night's Dream"? Depend upon it, he would have used scenery had there been any. Between Shakespeare and Mr. Crummles is a great gulf fixed. He, Mr. Crummles, had a practicable pump and two tubs and real water, and—we have the authority of Dickens for it, they brought down the house. Since Mr. Crummles' day we have not gone back: we have marched forward: we are more and more for realism. We have not only real water, but real fire, real gunpowder, real horses; and I remember seeing a play in which the characters acted with a distinct resemblance to real men and women. Opera has not lagged behind the ordinary theatre. At Covent Garden one can roughly estimate the cost of the gas in the fire scene at the end of the "Valkyrie". And consider the swan in "Lohengrin". I picture Mr. Neil Forsyth going to the poulterer at early dawn to provide for the evening: in the absence of a swan he secures the largest duck obtainable, and if, like Mr. Dan Leno's, it looks as if it had been fed on rabbit-meat so as to get the two flavours in one bird, that is not Mr. Forsyth's fault: he does his best. And the ravens in the "Dusk of the Gods"—are they not bought in the season when they thin the young rooks? Decidedly you get, if you get nothing else, realism of a sort at Covent Garden. At Bayreuth, too, you get it: real billygoats which insist on munching the scenery—how real it must seem to them when they mistake bits of pasteboard and canvas for genuine leaves—and horses that have to be prodded from the wings and show the ghastly whites of their eyes at every unexpected blast from the orchestra.

How far is this sort of thing to go? We are grown mighty particular in these days and in the mounting of Wagner's operas there is room for lots of improvements. I suppose that in the absence of mermaids we shall never have real water in the "Rhinégold", but there is no reason why we should not have a real crocodile and a real frog, for why should we stop short at a duck? And in some remote undiscovered country my prophetic soul tells me there lurks the dragon all ready for the second act of "Siegfried"; and it would be the easiest thing in the world to train a magpie or a starling to do the bird song. But it is not the animals alone of the Wagner menagerie which urgently demand improvement in the direction of realism. Are we not all tired of pretending to believe that bits of cardboard and cloth are trees or rocks or flowers or whatever else the imaginative stage-manager may tell

us they are? Away with these shams! Let us have the genuine article—trees growing, and grass, and mighty boulders. Of course the changes would be difficult: every available hand with Mr. Harry Higgins and Lord de Grey assisting might be needed to move a twenty ton rock; but that might be avoided by the simple expedient of having a sufficient number of theatres under the same roof, identical as far as the seating arrangements are concerned but each with its scene ready set, so that, for instance, at the end of the first act of "Siegfried" the audience, conductor, orchestra and singers would simply migrate and begin the second. Someone would have thought of this long ago if theatrical people had not used up all their imagination in making themselves believe that the bogus is the real thing. Again, if a real sea with a real ship is not practicable in the first act of "Tristan", at any rate machinery might be employed to make the sham ship roll a little. Even that peculiarly excruciating screwing motion which drives so many miserable travellers to look over the side of the ship to see how deep the water is—even that might be got; and if Isolde should become rather unwell before the entry of Tristan that would be a last convincing touch of realism. Further than this we should not go. The rate of mortality in Wagner's operas is excessive, and it would be a wicked waste of tenors and sopranos if they had all actually to pass through the valley of the shadow. Besides, though I know nothing of surgery, I doubt whether Tristan would be able to sing well in his third act if Melot had punctured him in some vital spot in the second; and again, would Melot be guilty of manslaughter or murder? From every point of view it would be bad to turn opera into a sort of gladiator show. If Tristan, say, happened to be played by an irascible singer and lost his temper and made away with Melot, what would become of the third act? By trying to make tragedy too tragic we should turn it into mere comedy. Yet, yet, what beautiful paragraphs could be written in the musical columns of the daily papers. "Yesterday Signor X., who will play Otello this evening, paid farewell visits to his many friends. Many touching scenes were witnessed and many ladies were moved to tears by the thought that this famous singer would shortly be no more. He will leave a sorrowing widow and goodness knows how many children. The coffin has been made to measure by Messrs. Y. Z. & Co. of Tottenham Court Road, and the funeral will take place at Brompton on Friday next at 2 P.M. No flowers." From the journalist's point of view there are pros and cons, but I fancy the singers would have but one opinion.

As dull persons are in the habit of saying after some particularly ghastly attempt at humour, joking apart, let us be serious; man is but little superior to the beasts that perish and he be not serious. One cannot say that the tendency towards realism on the stage brought realism into music. Realistic music was written while stage machinery and scenery were still at their crudest. It was Wagner who insisted on having his scenery as true as possible to nature; and long before Wagner composers had imitated the crowing of cocks, the noise of thunder and got many other effects now commonplace and done to death. I remember a piece by Bach—I am not sure whether by Bach or another man of the same name: an excusable mistake seeing how many hundreds there were of them—and in this piece the cackling of a hen is imitated. The notion that Bach was expressing his emotions after triumphantly laying a fugue seems to me rather far-fetched. Beethoven tried to give us the lightning flash and certainly succeeded with the scream of the tempest in the forest. He put the notes of the cuckoo and quail into the slow movement of the pastoral symphony. Mendelssohn did the whistling of sea-winds in the Hebrides overture and the braying of a donkey in the "Midsummer Night's Dream". There are any number of examples which we need not listen to—it is my prayer, morning, noon and night to be preserved from mere descriptions of scenery, whether in music or in words. Yet with the rise of Wagnerism and the perfecting of stage arrangements to give us the illusion of reality realism undoubtedly began to play a more important part in serious music. It was an essential.



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## SUPPLEMENT.

LONDON: 15 OCTOBER, 1904.

AFTER THOMAS HARDY.

"Sabrina Warham." By Laurence Housman.  
London: Murray. 1904. 6s.

It is inevitable, when from any field of art one worker has gathered a harvest which proclaims his intimacy with its conditions and his mastery over its returns, that this province of his labour should be regarded among his contemporaries, not as inalienably his, but as thrusting a comparison upon any other who shall try to fill his granary from the same soil. How inexorable is such a fate Mr. Housman confesses when in his dedication he mentions the discovery that Mr. Thomas Hardy had already used an incident of which he had imagined himself the inventor. But Mr. Hardy throws a more significant shadow on the book than could fall from this little matter of the trapped rabbits. One might well have been unaware of that and yet felt the influence of the older writer, not merely in such coincidental selections, but in the presentation of the country life, in the definition of character, and in the whole ordering of the drama. The scene of the story is concealed by names which seem to bear, according to Mr. Hardy's practice, a certain relation to actuality, and, despite the concealment, one feels competent to place one's finger on a spot in Wessex where the scene is laid, though lacking personal acquaintance with its surroundings. That is a tribute to the author's topography, always a difficult affair to render with a geometric and geological accuracy and to endure at the same time with poetic significance. Mr. Hardy has shown in nearly all his works a similar intention and capacity; the same faculty for making us see his country in relief instead of in plan, to realise and even to anticipate its weather, and to feel that very force of its configuration which may affect character at its critical hour. Weather is also used by Mr. Housman very much in Mr. Hardy's manner to supply a dramatic background for his culminating scenes. The storm by which poetic justice is served to the weak elements of the story markedly illustrates the method. The storm comes first to our hearing through Lottie's ears, the frail humble loving creature whom it is to engulf, and its first mutterings sound for her at the moment when she has, after a queer fashion, squared the account with her frailty, and received, with her new intimations of motherhood, the kiss of reconciliation from her husband's lips. "The wind", as he kissed her, "was blowing up for rain with a promise of dirty weather before nightfall", and all through the day we hear with her ears the gusts rising, the deepening stress of the storm; while, to complicate our expectation of tragedy, we are fed with her vague fears that her husband will be drowned. "The fitful sunshine of the early morning hours was gone: low grey clouds were hurrying along with ever-increasing density in a north-easterly direction. From below the cliff could be heard the peculiar alternation of sigh and growl which comes from the sea-drawn shingle along all that stretch of coast." Then with the risen tide she hears a sound that seems to come out of the ground, resembling "the hollow moan of some animal in pain. Coming from a spot where no animal could be, it acquired a character of its own, weird and haunting and infinitely depressing to the imagination. The sound rose at regular intervals, like the tolling of a minute-bell, or, to be more exact, timing itself to the periodic advance of the breaking surf". The adage born of local superstition recurs to her memory "If the sea-cow sound, a man will be drowned", and so, with the suggestion of inevitable fate and the ominous howling of the gale, we proceed to tragedy.

How exactly in conception, even in diction, does the method recall culminations we have awaited before in Wessex of other tragedies, and the manner in which our prevision has been aroused and heightened. But the book offers many such resemblances that beckon the memory. The three days' mist of the concluding chapters out of which Sabrina gropes her way

to happiness and home. "It seemed as if her body, as she stepped into it, undergoing some ghostly attenuation of substance, had itself become a part of the atmosphere, and was but a shifting atom with more compactness and determination in it than the rest. . . . Over all a slow infiltration of fresh molecules of mist was constantly taking place". Then the fine delineation of the downs, the technical precision of language, the sketch of the bird-fancier's shop, the description of the monastery farm—"a collocation of rough rectangular cells, each fulfilling an economic purpose, each with its attendant energy to give it life"—and of Sabrina's climbing of the cliff; these and others are all reminiscently suggestive. But the suggestion, if it hold a hint of unconscious memory, or rather of a mind converted to particular methods of observation, carries a commendation with it, for these things are reminiscent of Mr. Hardy at his best. And in larger matters, the conduct of the entire comedy, the appreciation of quiet drama, the interest and significance with which are invested by an acute and sympathetic enumeration the seeming trivialities of existence, and the unstrained humour used in drawing the life of the countryside, these must be counted to the author's personality even though they may recall the predilections of another.

What, in comparison, the book misses, and perhaps may be content to miss, is that intensity of apprehension without which Mr. Hardy seems almost unable to encompass any large view of life. He wrings from it some of his most wonderful effects, but he is occasionally betrayed thereby into melodrama, and often too long protracts the tension of his readers. In "Sabrina Warham" readers need not fear exhaustion; for the coolness of atmosphere which is its great charm is seldom disturbed; but once it approaches very near to melodrama; and here one cannot but feel that Mr. Hardy's influence and example have been wholly for evil. The cry of the libraries for a happy ending had no doubt its share in the catastrophe by which Sabrina is made once more a free woman, and a way paved to her mistressing of the Monastery Farm. But melodrama must be handled in Mr. Hardy's tremendous manner to yield results in which one can even reluctantly acquiesce, and Mr. Housman's artistic soul seems to have shrunk a little from his own violence, and only to have been sustained by the necessity of an extrication. It is to his credit that he killed poor Lottie too, even though he makes the manner of her death quite unconvincing. Lottie is not needed as a sacrifice, and her death only ensured the arm-chair comfort of Sabrina and David whose future is thereby made unnecessarily right all round. But the double tragedy is in the high-handed Greek manner, and its unlikelihood is perhaps a reason why one should not complain of it. But the success of the book lies in another direction, in that fine sense of quiet drama to which reference has been made. David, who really dominates everything, is convincingly and dexterously drawn. He is "put in" with very few strokes, but not one of them is amiss, and none fails to produce the effect required.

The scene in which he burns the ash sapling with which his father boasted to have "larruped the rogue out of him" is the finest in the book. "A little tongue of flame lapped round the ferrule; in the centre it showed blue where the chemical action of heat on metal had begun. David bent forward and stared into the fire, giving no sign, saying no word. He drove the stick a little further home, only a little further: inch by inch the fire crept along the wood." His father, pinioned by lumbago to his chair, roars with impotent wrath. The farm labourers in the room gaze in fearful astonishment. Exhausted at last by his rage the old man sits panting and speechless. Still the burning goes on till the stump is thrust into the fire. The hour strikes, the labourers troop off to their loft, the house-keeper is dismissed, and at last, without a word spoken, David lifts his father and carries him off to bed. It was his assumption of authority over the farm, but it was more than that, a strange silent confession of his love. In that its beauty and its force consist. And in just this manner, by reflection as it were, David's character is drawn. His personality lies across the changing scene, like some shaft, amid whirling machinery, slowly revolving, and about that grave

intensity the whole drama of the book turns; so that, despite the care with which Sabrina is elaborated, it is his portrait and not hers that remains with one when the book is closed, and closed regretfully it will be by all who can appreciate fine workmanship and the sympathetic interpretation of mortal things.

#### A JAPANESE FARRAGO.

"Japan by the Japanese." Edited by Alfred Stead. London: Heinemann. 1904. 20s. net.

THE statistical publications issued from time to time in the English language by the Japanese Government are models of accurate compilation and full of interesting and varied information. Monographs, such as those by Professor Nitobe on "Intercourse between the United States and Japan" and by Professor Iyenaga on the "Constitutional Development of Japan", have occasionally been written in English and within their limited scope have substantially contributed to our knowledge. But hitherto no popular work of general reference has ever been produced by the Japanese themselves for the benefit of English readers; no attempt has been made by them, either independently or in co-operation with any of the recognised English authorities, whose assistance would no doubt have been most readily given in such an undertaking, to provide a work which could convey an accurate idea not only of the material but of the social conditions of the Empire, which might serve as a handbook of general information to the multitude whose enthusiasm for everything Japanese is now at white heat. Mr. Alfred Stead acutely recognised that there is room for such a handbook, and he visited Japan with the very praiseworthy object of endeavouring to induce the leading men there to undertake its preparation. His success was worthy of his object. He enlisted the co-operation of the most distinguished statesmen and scholars in Japan, of the men whose names are most prominently before the world as soldiers, sailors, bankers, shipowners and merchants, and their contributions, covering a very wide field, are gathered together in the volume which is now before us. The modern history of Japan is very fully related; the growth of the army, navy and mercantile marine; the spread and present system of education; the striking economic developments in trade and industry are all dealt with at length by the most competent authorities on each subject. There is an interesting chapter on the "Press" by one of the best known Tokio editors: one headed "Religion", but dealing mainly with the Samurai's code of honour and Ancestor worship, by two distinguished University professors; another on Art and Literature by Baron Suyematsu, whose reputation among his own countrymen is not founded on an expert acquaintance with either subject, but he has nevertheless here provided a succinct account of both for the benefit of those who have neither the time nor inclination to study the elaborate and scholarly works of Anderson and Aston. All these chapters we can recommend to readers with whom unimpeachable accuracy is a subordinate consideration to interest, who will find here, brought into compact and intelligible form, a great deal of information for which they would otherwise have to search through scores of volumes by different writers.

With this recommendation we have exhausted all that we can honestly say in favour of the book. Throughout the whole of it there is absolutely nothing that is entirely new. A large part of its contents are almost verbatim excerpts from the ordinary Government publications and not from the most recent of these. The numerous statistics which accompany the chapters on finance and industry are, with very few exceptions, so belated as to be of little value in conveying any knowledge of Japan's present economic position or adequately representing the marked commercial and industrial progress she has made. These are not the worst faults. Editorial blunders, which no excess of charity would admit of being described as misprints, are appallingly frequent. Some of them are the result of carelessness but many others are so glaring that they



can only be ascribed to ignorance of the very elements of the Japanese language, history, geography and chronology. The names of well-known personages and places in Japanese history are so grotesquely misspelt as to render them almost unrecognisable; that of the same person or place, in more than one instance within a very few pages, is presented in such varied guises that only an expert could reconcile them. In many cases the work of the Japanese writers requires considerable elucidation to render it intelligible to readers making their acquaintance with the subject for the first time, and any competent editor would have supplemented it by copious explanatory notes. In other instances notes would have been equally advisable to supply the place of omissions or to explain inferences drawn by the writers which are not easily apparent to the English readers: in others again, we must add, to tone down references which are misleading, occasionally absolutely inaccurate, such as those in regard to the Hartley opium case (p. 206) and the wreck of the British steamer "Normanton" (p. 209), off what Mr. Stead calls the coast of Kisin (Kishiu). Editorial notes, with a very few exceptions of the most insignificant description, are however entirely wanting throughout the whole volume. Some of the statements made by the highest authorities are, in the form in which they are published, startling in their inaccuracy. Count Inouye for instance, one of the greatest statesmen, perhaps the greatest authority on economic subjects in Japan, in emphasising the progress of manufacturing industry is under Mr. Stead's editing represented as stating that "the import of yarns fell from 120,000,000 to 130,000,000 yen in 1889 to 4,870,000 yen in 1901", and a little further on that "his investigations lead him to believe that the manufactures which may be profitably undertaken by the Japanese amount in value to 51,000,000 yen approximately". No stronger illustration can be given of the progress of manufacturing industry in Japan than that of cotton yarns, formerly one of the most valuable imports from England. Now the people have become not only entirely self-supplying in regard to their own domestic requirements, but cotton yarns made in Japan are, next to silk, by far the most valuable of all exports. Never at any time did their import, we believe we may safely say, reach even one-tenth of the value which Mr. Stead represents Count Inouye as giving for 1889, the year in which the import reached its zenith. The aggregate value indeed of the whole foreign trade of Japan in that year, both of imports and exports, barely exceeded the amount he gives as that of the import of cotton yarns alone. And in making the comparison between 1889 and subsequent years Mr. Stead had material at his disposal for carrying it down not to 1901 but to 1903. Had he used this material, Count Inouye's argument would have been much strengthened, even with a correct quotation of the figures for 1889, the total import in 1903 having fallen to the insignificant amount of 766,000 yen. As to the value of the manufactures that may be profitably undertaken by Japan, we are unable to reconcile the estimate of 51 million yen with the fact that after supplying her own requirements Japan now annually exports manufactured goods to the value of fully 90 million yen. Although the story of Japan's modern development is told under several headings with wearying reiteration, scarcely any credit is given anywhere to the foreigners in her service to whom she owes so much of her present position. The names are mentioned of some of the English officers who created the navy, but those of Admiral Tracey, Lieut. Hawes, and Mr. James (a brave and competent officer of the mercantile marine) who laid its foundations, and of Admiral Inglis, who taught the Japanese officers all the strategy they know, are ignored. M. de Boissonade, the compiler of the codes of law, Mr. Black and Mr. Glover, the founders of the press and mining industry, are also mentioned, but not even this grudging tribute is paid to the devoted and talented experts who created the army and enabled Japan to acquire her present high proficiency in medicine, engineering and other sciences.

Mr. Stead has devoted so much time and labour to the compilation of his book, the thought which origin-

ally suggested it was so admirable, and his long journey to Japan for the special purpose of initiating its preparation deserves so much consideration that we should have been glad if we had been able to commend the whole work unreservedly to the consideration of our readers. But, as it stands, its value as a work of reference is lamentably impaired. In undertaking its editorship Mr. Stead assumed a task that was beyond his powers, that is beyond the powers of anyone, no matter how distinguished in literature, who has not the expert acquaintance with Japan that can only be acquired by long study and direct experience. Mr. Stead does not state and we do not know what was the actual duration of his own stay in Japan, but he claims in his preface to "have some little knowledge and some little understanding of the Japanese people, to have acquired a certain amount of Japanese atmosphere (whatever that may mean) and a deep sympathy which enables him to see many things and understand many things Japanese which others do not". Granting the possession by Mr. Stead in its fullest measure of the little knowledge and understanding, of the atmosphere and sympathy, these attributes are evidently no more sufficient by themselves to qualify him for efficiently editing what may be called a technical work, whose real value must depend as much on its unquestionable accuracy as on its comprehensiveness and variety, than the acquisition of sentences from a Tauchnitz phrase-book would qualify the learner to act as a competent interpreter on the Continent.

#### WINGED WORDS.

"The Winged Destiny." By Fiona Macleod. London: Chapman and Hall. 1904. 6s.

WE should think there is no new estimate needed of the work of Miss Macleod. Nothing in the present volume at least suggests any such necessity. They who know her writings will find here the patent characteristics of her thought and emotion, and all that exuberance and luxuriance of style which give so great a pomp of words to her pages. They who do not may just as well make acquaintance with her in this book as elsewhere if they want to make the experiment. Most of these short stories, consisting of renderings, or shall we say reminiscences and suggestions of the Keltic legendary and mythical lore which form the groundwork of Miss Macleod's writings, have already appeared in various magazines. Readers who have come across them there will have already decided for themselves whether a collected volume of such productions is to be considered as a literary treasure of high value enhanced in its permanent form or one which cannot in any degree appeal to them either for their substance or their form. In her case it would be especially necessary to know beforehand the temperament and education of a reader before we could be sure whether in recommending Miss Macleod's book we were committing a folly, conferring a benefit or bringing upon some unfortunate person an infliction of unintelligibility and boredom. All we could say in general terms would be that if the reader seeks his interest in the ordinary loves and hates of ordinary society, the love-making and family history of his contemporaries, or if he desires the crude melodrama in all its varieties as it is seen in the modern fiction of popular authors, then he had better not try Miss Macleod. He will find himself in a mental region where the atmosphere is too rare for easy breathing. Ideas, matter, form are too remote, too unsubstantial, too unlike anything that happens to the man or woman of flesh and blood unless the reader have the Keltic temperament as an Irishman, or a Scotch Highlander, or a Welshman, or, as Miss Macleod grants may be the case, be a Kelt otherwise, that is to say, philosophically or fantastically imaginative, mystical, emotional, so that the most involved symbolism and allegory may be easily translated by him into a concrete meaning and become as lucid as the vernacular of the street.

In the last of the short pieces in this volume is one entitled "The Winged Destiny". It is not a story but a disquisition, its subject being those

dark abysses of human fate and destiny into which Miss Macleod loves to plunge with the clue of the Keltic mythology in her hand. We see she refers to that beautifully written but elusory production of Maeterlinck entitled "*La Sagesse et la Destinée*" which anticipates in time Miss Macleod's essay. We wish to make no comparison between the two beyond saying that if the reader seek definite ideas, something which he can say he has understood, as distinct from impressions too tremulous for reproduction in sense and words, he will be just as likely and no more to find that in the one writer as in the other. To enjoy either a temperament is needed which delights to wander in the voids of thought, delights to feel where there is nothing to think, and to be wafted on glittering wings of words into the region of no-meaning. The plainest of non-Keltic people may cower in dread before the inscrutable fate which he feels at his own side and hovering over the world past, present and to come; but when it comes to analysing Fate, to making a psychology of Destiny, to dividing it into two parts as Cæsar did Gaul into three, we seem to come then on a piece of mechanical imagination which whether it be Keltic or not does not seem to us of a very high order or to extend those mental horizons which Miss Macleod observes in her preface is the preoccupation with which she writes. We acknowledge with emphasis Miss Macleod's great power over language; her way of saying things is full of pleasure to the educated reader, but the educated reader will ask himself what precisely he gains in thought by such a passage as the following whose rhetoric is however at least impressive. Miss Macleod's idea is of two Destinies. "Is there not the sombre and inscrutable Genius of this world, which weaves with time and races and empires, with life and death and change, and in the web of whose web our swift passing age, our race, our history are no more than vivid gleams for a moment turned to the light? And is there not also a Winged Destiny, a Creature of the Eternal, inhabiting infinitude, so vast and incommensurable that no eye can perceive, no imagination limn, no thought overtake, and yet that can descend upon your soul or mine as dew upon blades of grass, as wind among the multitudinous leaves, as the voice of sea and forest that can rise to the silence of mountain brows or sink in whispers through the silence of a child's sleep? A Destiny that has no concern with crowns and empires and the proud dreams of men, but only with the soul, that flitting shadow, more intangible than dew, yet whose breath shall see the wasting of hills and the drought of oceans."

There seems to us to be a good deal more of an intellectual woman's posing for effect in passages like this, and there is a good deal of it in these sketches, than of simple truth and sincerity. In fact it is a kind of pulpit eloquence not of high order; and the tone of much of it reminds us too closely of the manner of that other lady who has given us intimate studies of the devil and other suchlike dark sides of nature. And while we are speaking of pulpit eloquence it may be remarked that the sketch called the "Wayfarer" would have been much better omitted. There is nothing Keltic about it except the Highland strath where the supposed episode takes place. This is banal of the banal; it is neither artistic nor literary and is in a vulgar vein of sentiment which we should have thought impossible to Miss Macleod's literary fastidiousness and exclusiveness. Was it not some one in America or was it Mr. Stead who asked "If Christ came to Chicago"? Miss Macleod reincarnates Christ that He may reprove the Rev. James Campbell, a Highland minister who has strong Calvinistic views about the mishap of Mary Gilchrist, whose baby has anticipated its mother's marriage. Christ preaches a sermon and the minister is beaten off the field at Scripture exposition and—but it is unnecessary to say more. Several of the earlier stories are extremely slight; but they illustrate, as do others with more substance, very interesting comparisons and no less interesting contrasts between the Greek and the Keltic mythologies. "*Orpheus and Osein*" is very beautiful. We have no intention of going into the controversy which Miss Macleod occasioned with those of

the "Keltic movement" by her article "Celtic" now reproduced in this volume. But we admire her sane view of the Keltic genius and literature in comparison with those of some other people. There has been much extravagance on the part of those Keltic exclusionists whom Miss Macleod has reproved so faithfully and with a compatriot's freedom not allowed to the Sassenach—if that is the proper word for the non-Keltic.

#### LEWANIKA'S KINGDOM.

"Africa from South to North through Marotseland." By Major A. St. H. Gibbons. 2 vols. London: Lane. 1904. 32s. net.

MAJOR GIBBONS so far defers to the journalists as to give his new book a title which suggests that their view of his explorations in 1898-1900 is the natural one to take, but he attaches more importance to his work in Marotseland than to his crossing of Africa—a feat already performed by a Cambridge undergraduate. The fact is that except for an unpleasant region near Lake Kivo, which the mutineers from the Congo State forces have made into a wilderness of murder and cannibalism, the traverse of the continent is not now very difficult. The traveller can find steamers on the big lakes, and can generally pass from one European post to another in safety. Rhodesia, British Central Africa, German East Africa and the Congo State pass him on to the Uganda Protectorate, where he is in touch with Egypt. The fanatical Mohammedan powers have been crushed in the eastern half of Africa, and the Bantu and negroid tribes can be managed by firmness and tact. It is still a different matter in the hinterland of West Africa. But the patient, careful work which Major Gibbons accomplished in what the maps call Northern Rhodesia is of far greater geographical importance, though less sensational, than any scamper from south to north. He visited the source of the Zambesi, which he found to be four days' march from the map-makers' position, travelled with a Belgian party along the Zambesi-Congo watershed, and made a careful study of the Upper Zambesi and its chief affluents. He and two others of his original party returned to fight in the Boer war, while a fourth member was in time to serve in Ashanti. The party separated in Marotseland, Captain Quicke going west to Benguela, Major Stevenson-Hamilton making his way to the east coast through partly unexplored country, and the leader pursuing his northward path alone. The book is certainly one of the most interesting records of recent travel. Major Gibbons, without any pretensions to style, can make a happy blend of geographical research, sport, and observations on native tribes and European colonial systems, which will interest every reader to whom Africa is more than a name. His main work was in a country first explored by Livingstone, but he has little to say of more recent travellers. The doings of an unnamed predecessor—who must have passed from Kivo to Albert Edward about the time at which Mr. Grogan was in those regions—earned him an unfriendly reception from one tribe, while on the matter of the height of Ruwenzori he complains with very good reason of the discourtesy of Mr. Moore. But apart from these two affairs there is nothing of the bickering so unhappily frequent between explorers. Major Gibbons roughed it in a manner amazing to the Belgians, who apparently like to explore in comfort, and he speaks out strongly on the abuses of the system of armed Askaris. The native in European employment will always bully his fellow-Africans if he is not carefully watched. The early record of the Matabele police is instructive on this point, and half the Congo troubles come from the misdeeds of native troops under imperfect control. Major Gibbons had no armed escort, he maintained strict discipline among his carriers, and was thus able to pass without difficulty where less judicious travellers would have had to fight their way. His book should be studied by sentimentalists, who might take to heart the anecdote of the carriers who mentioned casually at the end of a long day's march that one of their number had fallen out to die. They had not thought the matter worthy of report at the time.



At the present moment most readers will turn to the comments of an experienced traveller on the Congo Free State system. His first impressions were very favourable: he met officers of a good type in the southern parts of the State. But he soon found it unsafe to generalise. He is convinced of the good intentions of the Government, and his remarks on the abuses which were forced on his notice are clearly delivered without prejudice. It is evidently the fact that Belgium cannot supply enough good men to go round such a huge domain, and most unsuitable underlings are given what amounts to a free hand in remote districts. From want of experience men of better type make lamentable mistakes. It seems not unfair to say that the Belgians, new-comers to the continent, neither understand how to govern blacks nor realise the necessary solidarity of white men. Much the worst feature of the Stokes affair for instance was the fact that one European killed another—on grounds in any case insufficient—before black spectators in an unsettled region. Neither the French nor the Germans would have acted in this way, and it is not surprising that Congo territory is often unsafe for any European who has a weak escort. Major Gibbons is careful to remember facts which sentimentalists ignore: the Belgians entered late upon the scramble for Africa at a moment when effective occupation was necessary to confirm treaty claims, and they naturally did not expend much time in reasoning with recalcitrant tribes. They found no Khama or Lewanika in possession of a firm dominion and ready to accept a protectorate on fair terms: their titular possessions had been swept by Arab raiders and their condition was a good example of the state of nature as described by Hobbes. But, with exceptional opportunities for judging, their not unfriendly critic declares that "the natives are not the gainers by the Belgian occupation". The new masters interfere too much in matters which wiser administrators would leave alone, and the inevitable result is anarchy. If native systems are upset arbitrarily, long before the native has made the first step towards civilisation, the consequences must be disastrous. There is little in this book about the alleged commercial exploitation of the country at the expense of native rights, and Major Gibbons is far from drawing a wholesale indictment against the Congo system. But he makes it very clear that the character of Congolese rule in any district depends entirely on the temperament of the officer or sergeant in charge. There has been no time to form such a tradition of decent conduct as checks the vagaries of our own undesirables to some extent, and the personnel of the administration is not up to the proper standard.

The recent visit of Lewanika to England (which, we are glad to hear, has left him unspoiled) has roused interest in what used grandiosely to be called the "Marotse-Mambunda Empire". It is an interesting state, with a record of nearly three centuries, though the present régime dates only from a successful revolt against the Makololo invaders who ruled the country in Livingstone's time. Lewanika is the twenty-first chief of his line, but has known the tribulations of the exile, his early proceedings having brought about a revolution. He has learned wisdom, and lets the various tribes under his suzerainty manage their own affairs, but he makes the mistake of trying to monopolise all the more valuable products of his country. His subjects show a wide variety of social and ethnical conditions, and the account given in this book of the gynocracy established among the Valovale is of interest to the anthropologist. Major Gibbons is perhaps inclined to lay too much stress on linguistic resemblances: from certain prefixes, which are, we believe, common to all the Bantu languages, he draws more precise inferences as to the Marotse genealogy than are warranted. It seems clear that they came from the north, and are a good type of Bantu, having more in common with the Waganda than with the Zulu or Basuto stocks. But the conclusions to be drawn from the data here collected should occupy experts for some time to come. Major Gibbons had already done valuable work in Northern Rhodesia, and this second book is an important supplement to his earlier volumes. It is sound without being heavy, and when the reader has for the moment had

enough of longitudes and observations he can muse on the career of such worthies as the Portuguese gentleman with a family of 140 black children.

#### THE GARDENER'S GUIDE.

"Every Man his own Gardener." By John Halsham. London: Hodder and Stoughton. 1904. 6s.

WE turned to this book with zest tempered by misgiving. Fortunately we knew something of John Halsham's work, or the Philistine title would effectually have barred us from all attempt to enter into his garden. We would rather have remained outside Paradise than enter by such a gate; for we remember "Every Man his own Lawyer", "Every Man his own Doctor" and other similar quackeries. Put "fool" in place of "man" and there would be some sense in these titles. Why the author of "Idlehurst", or his publishers, should have an ambition to be confounded with such canaille is too hard for us, as also how they could have smudged the last chapter of such a book with so repulsive a heading as "Do's and Don'ts". Apparently the view was that so long as you begin and end badly, it does not matter how well you do all the rest. We rather suspect that John Halsham meant to do a pot-boiler, but, being what he is, he failed and produced what he did. Then, seeing that it had simply nothing in common with a pot-boiler, he stuck on to it a false pot-boiling head and tail to save appearances: result, a scarecrow. By a fortunate chance, as we said, we were not scared; but, tearing off the false appendages, we saw that the figure was true in its proportions.

We felt at once that the author was trying to do an extremely difficult thing, to make a thoroughly practical and working gardener's guide at no sacrifice of his literary and intellectual instincts. We know "Idlehurst" very well, and we know sundry other bits of John Halsham's work. "Idlehurst" is one of the most beautiful idylls in English. Was it possible for the philosopher, who in "Idlehurst" throws his mantle so gently around village life, knowing only too well the weak points that most want protection from unkind criticism without, for the artist, to whom the country and country life is all one scheme of colour and form, to be enough a toiler at detail, to get right down into the brutal concrete and make a text-book on gardening that a gardener as little poetic as Shakespeare's grave-digger could find really helpful in his work? It seemed unlikely. And if it were done, it must surely be at the cost of his literary side. We have tested the book in the severest way. We have given it to cultivated men in no sense practical gardeners and they read it with great enjoyment. Rebelling a little at first, they had no desire to drop the book when they had got a little way into it. Indeed there is quite a fascination in watching a literary style put to the turning of clods and sods. No matter what the job, delving, muck-raking, wheeling barrows, scraping roads, pruning, tying, all to the final survey of work done and flowers blowing, the style is equal to everything: it never breaks down: it never fails. That did not surprise us. But we were surprised to find that on the converse side the book was equally good. We have tested it quite as severely on this side; and we do not believe a better book was ever written for practical gardening purposes. It is thorough almost to a pain. Take the nature and making of good soil; none who will take the trouble to follow what is said can fail to understand why the particular kind of soil should be aimed at and how it is to be got. Or take the chapter on roses; we believe any expert will say that nothing better on the treatment of roses has yet been written. We tried the practical side of the book by a similar test with that we applied to its literary side. We gave the book to practical gardeners equally innocent of literary attainments as of literary ambitions. One pronounced it "beyond criticism"; another "the most perfect he had ever seen, especially on outdoor work". On the whole we must pronounce John Halsham's achievement in this book quite remarkable. We hope he will bring out a new edition under another name, pruned of the last chapter and of the irrelevant illustra-

tions. One might then send it to Zaehnsdorf or Riviere or de Coverley and duly install it in one's library. But it is impossible to be confronted for ever by "Every man his own Gardener". Your pipe would not draw; your temper would be spoilt; and gardens and gardening would become a burden.

There are one or two little practical points we should like to raise. Why is guano not recommended as a manure for vegetables? Then we are urged in the chapter on potatoes to "plant *whole* tubers; cutting up the roots is on the whole a false economy". Does John Halsham realise that as much as 360 and 380 lbs. per yard (land measure) of Windsor Castle and White Elephants respectively have been grown from cut tubers? Also we must protest against the slighting reference to begonias as a sort of villadom fad. Begonias have strong claims to recognition, not only for their beauty and great variety in colour, but quite as much because they stand rain and change of weather during summer and autumn better than any geranium: and the single varieties are quite easy and inexpensive to grow. We are not sure that John Halsham is fully sensible of the charm of an individual fine flower. Lastly we resent his attack on the sparrow. We like the sparrow. He is no more a tyrant than is the robin, and as for his commonness, we cannot all be aristocrats, and we would remind John Halsham that precisely this quality of commonness is put forward by him as a merit in more than one flower in this very book.

There is none of the best companionship where there is no difference of opinion, and it would have been very sad if our delight in this book had fallen short of the ideal. Let us conclude in the "Idlehurst" spirit and in its author's own words:

"Only those who have fought their way through adversities and have made their mistakes and lost their ventures can know the times of refreshing which come after a good day's work fairly put through—some ten minutes' idleness, when one sits on the wheelbarrow handle before the tea bell rings, in a November twilight when the weed-fire smoke drifts ghost-like about the dark brown plots of the trim-finished garden, or when the sunset catches the daffodils in an afternoon of March. Then it is that all the old failures and crosses, the work done in vain, the needless cares, the groundless fears, all the seeds that never come up, all the frosted blossoms and grub-gnawed fruit, all the droughts and floods slip, as by a silent enchantment, into their places in the puzzle, and we know wherein lies the true good of gardening and perhaps of the common business of life besides."

#### ENGLAND'S EARLIEST COLONIES.

"The American Colonies in the Seventeenth Century."  
By Herbert L. Osgood. 2 vols. London: Macmillan. 1904. 21s. net.

NUMEROUS as have been the histories of British colonisation published since Seeley's "Expansion of England" awakened student and public alike to a closer and more intelligent interest in British doings beyond the seas, none has anticipated Professor Osgood's elaborate work of which the first and second volumes have now been issued. It may best be described as an institutional history of England's earliest colonies. It covers the seventeenth century, and shows the colonies moving from the status of mere proprietary plantations and settlements to that of provinces and practically self-governing states. Professor Osgood must have spent years turning over such musty records of the beginnings of Virginia and New England as have been preserved, with the result that he is able to describe more or less fully, and with a thoroughness hitherto not attempted, the land system and the trade, the laws and the relations with the Mother-country and with the aborigines. His work is possibly not the less valuable because it has none of the fascination in style and matter of a Froude or a Seeley. The volumes will be indispensable to every library to which resort may be had for information, either as to the internal condition of the various colonies or as to their relations with England and each other in the days of Raleigh and Penn,

Sir Thomas Smith and Winthrop. There was immense variety in the settlements, ranging from the trading corporation to the regularly organised State, and the events covered by this history include not only the serious questions as to laws and frontier rights but such all-important trivialities as the dispute which arose over the extravagance of a Governor who indulged in the luxury of wainscoting in order to exclude draughts from his rooms. The early colonies seem to have had a genius for quarrelling, alike with their neighbours and among themselves.

Two chief points emerge from the study of these closely packed pages: one is the constant drifting of the colonies, whatever their constitution, towards something like autocracy in their government; the other, the instinctive movement towards self-government. In most instances they allowed themselves to be dominated by one ambitious personality who controlled the council and ruled tyrannically until a stronger man came along and displaced him. Men who had been sufferers from the pretensions of provincial Cæsars used their opportunities ruthlessly if chance placed them in power. John Smith in Virginia is a case in point. He escaped hanging only to become an autocrat. Even when the form of Government was intended to be democratic, it fell, as in Massachusetts, into the hands of a very few men. Throughout the century the names which appear in the lists of members of the Councils vary to a surprisingly small extent. At the best the system was democracy qualified by oligarchical leanings. Certain families seemed to get the reins into their fingers and keep them there from generation to generation. But with all this there was the constant striving of the colonists to secure self-government: they were men of a freer, sturdier and more independent mould than the common people at home, and separated as they were from England by the Atlantic, they were not slow to make claims to a voice in their own government denied to the subjects of the King within the four seas. In a word, from the time of the first meeting of the Virginia Assembly in 1619, we get both the root idea of separation and independence, and pretensions in individuals, which together were in the next century to break up the Empire. Common necessities, as far back as 1642, drove the young colonies into a tentative form of union. We do not think we exaggerate the importance of the data laid before the world by Mr. Osgood when we say that his work enables us to see the American Revolution in the seedling stage.

In a very able concluding chapter Professor Osgood indicates the length to which the baby States of New England carried the tendency towards independence, lengths which he says rendered the position to a considerable degree anomalous even in the early English colonial system. The oath of allegiance was neglected, and justice was administered in the name of neither the King nor the keepers of the liberties of England. Self-government was developed in a manner unknown at home, and was regulated by no acts of the English Parliament. "Agents of the English executive were not to any extent present to direct or restrain the acts of the colonists. Colonial initiative extended without restraint not merely to the administration of town and county government, to the collection and expenditure of local rates and to the control of local officials, but to the affairs of entire provinces and germinal commonwealths." In the absence of pressure from the Privy Council or of the central government the colonies "blossomed out into pseudo-statehood". Mr. Osgood finds evidence of the degree to which self-government was enjoyed in the fact that he has been able fully to describe the internal organisation and growth of the colonies with only an occasional reference to King or Parliament. \* The natural conclusion is that if they had been "legally independent of the Home Government they would have needed institutionally little more than they already possessed". Socially and politically they speedily became not only self-sufficient but in essential characteristics utterly unlike European communities. In the next century when the home-country asserted herself the colonies only tolerated her authority just so long as was necessary to secure them against France and other British rivals, and the Declaration of Independence,



when the success of British arms had dispelled colonial fears of foreign ambition, is easier to understand in the light of the revelations made by Professor Osgood.

### BONAPARTE'S CAREER AND THE PENINSULAR WAR.

"A History of the British Empire in the Nineteenth Century. Vol. II. The Campaigns of Wellington and the Policy of Castlereagh (1806-1825)." By Marcus R. P. Dorman. London: Kegan Paul. 1904. 12s. net.

THE depressing monotony of Mr. Dorman's literary style makes it rather difficult for the reader to do justice to his obvious desire to give an accurate and impartial account of a particularly intricate period of history. In our review of the first volume of this work we advised the author not to become a mere chronicler of a period of which the actual chronicles are easily available. Mr. Dorman has, however, apparently made up his mind that history should be a narrative of facts, with the result that, although his book may be of some help to those who are in search of a text-book, it can be of little use to more serious students of history.

In the present volume Mr. Dorman deals with the period between 1806 and 1825. Surely he devotes too much space to the English campaigns in the Peninsula. No doubt Spain has been called the grave of Napoleon, but it is easy to over-estimate both the importance of the Peninsular war as a factor in the overthrow of the Emperor, and also the part played in that war by this country. The victories of Wellington could never in themselves have seriously affected the position of Napoleon, nor could the French ever have been driven out of the Peninsula had it not been for the determined character of the Spanish national resistance. "Wellington's activity in Spain", as a recent writer has pointed out, "did not take up one-seventh of the country. . . . In all the other six parts of the Peninsula the heroic Spanish people were maintaining a tremendous struggle against 200,000, sometimes 300,000 French regular troops under able French marshals, such as Suchet, Lannes, Soult and others".

In after years Napoleon used to maintain that he had foreseen the national resistance which he was to encounter in Spain, and a letter said to have been addressed by him to Murat in March 1808 has been cited by Las Cases in support of this assertion. The best authorities seem now to be agreed that this letter, if genuine, was written at a later date and was certainly never sent to Murat. We think that it is much more likely that the determined opposition of the Spaniards came as a surprise to Napoleon.

The small importance which he attached to his entanglement in the Peninsula is best proved by the fact that at a critical period in the war he was able to organise his largest military undertaking—the invasion of Russia. He looked upon the resistance of the Spaniards very much in the same light as he regarded the insurrection in the Tyrol. He could afford to pay as little attention to the British expedition in the Peninsula as he did to our far more ostentatious military excursion to Walcheren. It was not until the failure of the Russian enterprise that he began to feel the Spanish war to be a serious drain upon his resources. In 1812 Napoleon was considered invincible throughout Europe. He had succeeded in establishing his supremacy over the Continent by dexterously taking advantage of the ancient rivalry between Austria and Prussia, by posing as the protector of the smaller German states, by humouring the Tsar. The war with Russia was fatal to his Empire because for the first time it united the whole of Europe against him, and, more important still, because it finally disillusioned and made hostile to his government the French bourgeoisie without whose support he was powerless.

No satisfactory explanation has ever been given for Napoleon's invasion of Russia. It violated every military and political principle which he held dear. It is not so surprising, therefore, as Mr. Dorman seems to imagine that Alexander was "by no means miser-

able or alarmed" when he heard that Napoleon was half-way to Moscow. The Tsar was no fool and realised that his enemy was conducting the campaign in the way best calculated to insure his own ruin. Had Napoleon merely wished to humble Alexander, the formation of a kingdom of Poland would have effected his purpose. Had the expedition of 1812 been successful, it could not have materially assisted those dreams of oriental conquest with which Napoleon is credited, for Russia was not in those days a great Asiatic Power. It was also absurd to suppose that anything except the complete subjugation of the country, which was obviously impossible, could have rendered effectual the blockade against English trade. It would seem therefore that the only possible explanation for Napoleon's policy was that after the birth of his son his belief in his destiny lost all sense of proportion and led him to undertake a task which his own better judgment would have condemned.

Mr. Dorman endeavours to defend the foreign policy of Lord Liverpool's Government. He assures us that "it is perfectly obvious from their despatches that the Ministers . . . were well aware" of the value of the acquisitions made by this country at the Treaty of Paris; that "already the vision of a mighty Asiatic Empire was before their eyes". It is quite possible that Mr. Dorman is right and that the Government of the day did appreciate the importance of Malta, the Cape of Good Hope and Ceylon, but it would have been more convincing, in view of the adverse opinions usually entertained upon the prescience of British Governments, had he quoted some of the despatches to which he alludes, or had he at any rate given references to them. We agree with Mr. Dorman that Lord Castlereagh has been rather unfairly treated by both Miss Martineau and Sir Spencer Walpole. But although Lord Castlereagh was undoubtedly both an honourable man and an able statesman, as a diplomatist he was no match for Talleyrand or Metternich. Great Britain under his guidance certainly did not take the prominent position in the councils of Europe to which she was entitled. Had Lord Castlereagh taken a firmer line, it might have been possible, for instance, to establish even in 1814 an hereditary monarchy in Poland, for up to that date Great Britain had always refused to recognise the partitions of that country. The formation of such a State might have checked Russia's advance westward. We agree with Mr. Dorman that "it was not the business of England to instruct monarchs how to rule their subjects"; still it would probably have been better if Lord Castlereagh had refused to pledge this country to the impossible policy of attempting to restore the position which existed before the wars of the French Revolution and the Empire.

### GREEK, FRENCH, AND OTHER SCHOOL BOOKS.

"An Introduction to the Republic of Plato." By William Boyd. London: Sonnenschein. 1904. 2s. 6d. net.

"The Phædo of Plato." Edited with Introduction and Notes by Harold Williamson. London: Macmillan. 1904. 3s. 6d.

Is it due to the growth of Socialism, or the ever-increasing interest which attends the discussion of social questions that yet another introduction to the "Republic" of Plato has just been published? We have noticed two within the last three years, and it is quite possible that there have been others. Certainly many of the questions the philosopher raised are still with us in a very "live" state, to take only one—the question of free meals. Mr. Boyd's introduction strikes us as singularly helpful even to those who read the various translations that have appeared. It is singularly free from "gas", which is somewhat the besetting sin of many who write about and not on the subject, is full of facts and at the same time illuminating. In a word it is really helpful to the novice. In these days when it is at last recognised that society must rest on an economic basis, it is also well to recall that its foundations must none the less be spiritual. Mr. Williamson's "Phædo" is designed for the literary rather than the philosophical student. Its value is largely derived from copious borrowing from Mr. Archer-Hind's magisterial edition. The book is conceived in a spirit of narrow scholarship which we hoped was becoming more uncommon. The author states "the dialogue inevitably introduces the boy to

some entirely new ideas—in itself no disadvantage.” Could we damn with fainter praise the priceless contents of the dialogue? Again he gives no critical apparatus because “boys make little or nothing of . . . variant readings”. A qui la faute?

“Examination Papers on Thucydides.” By T. Nicklin; “Examination Papers on Vergil.” By W. G. Coast; “Examination Papers on Horace.” By T. C. Weatherhead. London: Methuen. 1904. 2s. each.

Nothing shows how examination-ridden we are than the publication of these aids to cramming which will doubtless command a ready sale. The teacher who knows his subject ought to have no difficulty in setting his own papers, and the teacher who does not ought not to be allowed to teach at all. What glimpse can the average pupil obtain of the fact that Thucydides, Horace and Vergil were, above all things, great writers, each with his own message not only to his own people but to the human race, when he finds their work treated as a mere “corpus vile” by the examination-monger? The compilers of such books are doing their best to kill the love of classics. Doubtless they think they are promoting classical study. They are really copying the practices of those who are busily engaged *propter vitam vivendi perdere causas*. The very thoroughness of their work, for it is both thorough and conscientious, is only hastening the evil day.

“Roman Problems from and after Plutarch’s Roman Questions.” With Introductory Essay on Roman Worship and Belief. By G. C. Allen. London: Bickers. 1904.

It is evidently a labour of love that Mr. Allen has attempted in his translation of Plutarch’s Roman Questions and his discussion on various supplementary nuances and cruxes. The Roman Questions appear altogether in a fresh and interesting light in connexion with the new science of folklore. Mr. Allen has performed a real service not only to the growing number of students in the subject by rendering Plutarch more accessible, but also to English scholarship by turning his classical attainments to worthy ends. *O si sic omnes!* Even the ordinary person could find much to interest him in the book. “Why must no marriages take place in May?” is still an interesting question to us, for May is the month in which marriages are most infrequent.

“Premières Lectures.” Written and edited by F. B. Kirkman. 1s. Cours Moyen et Supérieur: (1) Délivrance de Schultz. Par Edmond About. Edited by F. B. Kirkman. 9d. (2) Waterloo. Par Henry Houssaye. Edited by G. H. Clarke. 8d. (3) Le baron de Fourchevif. Par Labiche et Jolly. Edited by A. H. Smith. 6d. London: Black. 1904.

Blackie’s Little French Classics. “La poudre aux yeux.” Par Labiche et Martin. Edited by W. G. Hartog. London: Blackie. 1904. 8d.

Siepmann’s French Series. Elementary (1) “Les Méaventures de Jean-Paul Choppard.” Par Louis Desnoyers. Edited by A. von Glehn. 2s. (2) Word and Phrasebook to the above by the general Editors of the Series. London: Macmillan. 1904. 6d.

Mr. Kirkman has turned out an attractive book for beginners in French dealing largely with “Realien” and illustrated with explanatory sketches and photographs. There is a distinctly French flavour and savour about the book, which is not always observable in the publications which profess to teach French according to the new method. Even the pictures are not devoid of fun, witness the photograph of the small boy after his first smoke, which we are told is taken from life. We note a slight slip. “Guernsey” is not the French form of the name of the second largest of the Channel Islands. The three new additions to Messrs. Black’s “Cours Moyen et Supérieur” are all distinct acquisitions to the series. The abridgment from About contains a large selection of Gustave Doré’s amusing illustrations. There are one or two misplaced or omitted accents—i.e. *seché* (p. 8), *déménait* (p. 46). We cannot find authority for the form *Péloponise* (p. 7). “Donnait sur” is hardly equivalent to “ended in” but rather means “looked out on”, or “was situated on the edge of”. Could we use it for instance to translate “the path ended in a precipice”? The adaptation of M. Houssaye’s “Waterloo” has been very skilfully done by Mr. Clarke, but what is wrong with “à l’amiable”? Littré gives it without comment. The value of the edition is materially improved by a good map of the battlefield. Mr. Smith’s revised version of Labiche and Jolly’s rollicking play should serve as an admirable school book. Mr. Hartog’s edition of “La poudre aux yeux” chiefly suffers from too small print. The notes on the whole are good, but it is necessary to translate *à quoi bon?* The note on “expropriations” only explains the allusion to the context; the real difficulty for the schoolboy is to know what exactly they mean. Mr. von Glehn’s edition of the French “Sandford and Merton” is a very careful piece of work. The notes are full of practical hints. The word and phrasebook will be found an excellent aid to oral or written composition based on the French original.

“Le Français chez lui.” By W. H. Hodges and P. Powell. London: Edward Arnold. 1904. 1s. 3d.

“The Intermediate French Reader.” By Maurice A. Gerothwohl. London: Murray. 1904. 2s. 6d.

Messrs. Hodges and Powell, like Mr. Kirkman, are by no means blind to the lighter vein that is the distinguishing mark of French prose even when treating of everyday subjects. Their Reader has the great merit of being really readable. On the other hand Mr. Maurice A. Gerothwohl’s effort to furbish up Sir William Smith’s French Principia (Part II.) has only resulted in a collection of for the most part “stodgy” pieces. It opens with a pompous description of *La nature sauvage* by Buffon in his best Sunday school vein, and consists largely of selections which remind one of the contents of the “Child’s Guide to Knowledge.” We take leave to doubt if the student who has reached the second stage of the Principia will be able to appreciate the eighteenth-century manner. More useful is the second part which consists in readings in French history. We are certain that the school books of the future will be rather of the type of Messrs. Hodges and Powell’s work than resurrection pies of the Principia order, however carefully compounded. We note “parce que” printed as one word on page 21 of “Le Français chez lui”.

“A Third Year French Writer.” By J. H. Wade. London: Rivingtons. 1904. 3s. 6d.

The exercises are generally well put together, but some of the sentences are a little machine-made. An elementary knowledge of French cuisine would have prevented the author writing “You have brought me a frog” even if the speaker were supposed to be an ignorant Englishman. The hints on syntax at the end contain many useful hints and are obviously the work of a practical teacher.

Arnold’s German Reading Book: “Die Flut des Lebens, von Adolph Stern.” Edited by E. M. Prowse. London: Edward Arnold. 1s. 3d.

Miss Prowse’s edition of Adolph Stern’s little masterpiece is to be commended on various grounds. The German is straightforward, the story interesting and the price moderate. The exercises are good and not overdone. The book is said to be intended for third and fourth year students who are unable to devote more than two hours a week to German. Considering that most of such pupils have already had a linguistic grounding in French, if not in the mother tongue, it might certainly be read by those who are in their second or third year. Fourth-year students might well be put on to something a bit harder.

“Dent’s First English Book for Boys and Girls whose Mother-Tongue is not English.” By Walter Rippmann. London: Dent. 1904.

“The Use of Words. The Accidence of Grammar as it Explains the Parts of Speech.” By Georgina Kinnear. London: Murray. 1904. 1s.

Professor Rippmann’s First English Book for non-English pupils is an interesting departure. In it grammar and language are taught together from the start. There are a certain number of illustrations to help the pupil to dispense with his mother tongue. The whole of the lessons are repeated in phonetic script later on, and a section at the end is devoted to easy reading lessons. It is evidently meant for very young children, and as such should probably well serve the purpose for which it has been composed. Miss or Mrs. Kinnear’s “Use of Words” is also a book for beginners. It strikes us as painstaking but dull. We fancy the simple grammar that the authoress desires to impart to children should not be taught from a book at all but imparted orally by the teacher, or, better still, be taught inductively as in Professor Rippmann’s little book. The style of the book is terribly heavy.

Dent’s Shakespeare for Schools: “The Merchant of Venice.” Edited by R. McWilliam. London: J. M. Dent. 1904. 1s. 4d.

This new edition of Shakespeare for schools has much to commend it. The type is excellent, the notes concise and to the point and the general remarks on the play are not too elaborate. Some of the illustrations are very fair, but one or two seem quite pointless, notably the one entitled “Enter Portia and Nerissa”. We have already noticed the greater part of Mr. Wyatt’s edition of selections from “The Canterbury Tales”, as far as the Prologue is concerned. “The Squire’s Tale” appears to be as carefully edited and annotated as the rest of the book.

“A Primer of Browning.” By Edward Berdoe. London: Routledge. 1904.

Dr. Edward Berdoe has done good work as an interpreter of Browning and his philosophy, but in his “Primer of Browning” he has so boiled down his subject that it is difficult except in the case of the longer poems to see what particular category of persons can derive any benefit from them. What for instance is the good of the following critical

(Continued on page xii.)



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#### NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"Lean's Collectanea. English and other Proverbs, Folklore &c." In 5 vols. Bristol: Arrowsmith. 1904. £5.

No man was better known in the British Museum than Mr. V. S. Lean, and by his legacy of £50,000 should be remembered as a national benefactor. He will be remembered too by a host of literary "grubbers" by this work in which he took so abiding an interest but did not live long enough to produce and edit. It is now issued direct from his MS. with little revision, which indeed no one now alive was qualified to undertake. The book is a sort of continuation, on a wider and much more comprehensive scale, of Ray's, and is not likely to be superseded for generations as a reference book. The more modern references owe much to "that perennial fount" "Notes and Queries"; but it is a nice question, whether Mr. Lean owed most to "Notes and Queries" or "Notes and Queries" to Mr. Lean. The Collectanea, like "Notes and Queries" itself, is more than a reference book. The grouping of the proverbs and folklore relics under localities and also under subjects makes the matter at once interesting to the lazy reader as well as that busybody who grubs after odd facts for the love of oddity and want of something to think of. We notice under a reference to Stilton in Huntingdonshire that the note omits the reason why Stilton gave its name to the cheeses which were never made there.

"A Japanese Grammar." By H. J. Weintz. (Hossfeld's Series.) London: Hirschfeld Bros. 1904.

Here we have a serviceable manual of the Japanese spoken language in the Roman character, with dialogues and vocabularies, and if we may believe that a greater interest is now being taken than was ever felt before in the language of our Far Eastern allies this handy-sized volume should serve a very useful purpose. It is quite possible from its careful reading and study to acquire a sound knowledge of the Japanese tongue, and we have never seen a better work of its kind. The examples given are of the language really current in polite social intercourse, not the variety which passes muster as Japanese at the open ports, where a horrible jargon prevails that no educated person can recognise without taking a special course in it. Commercial intercourse is still mostly conducted through the agency of this "pidgin Japanese", when the native buyer or seller is unacquainted—which, however, is seldom—with English. True Japanese is a soft and pleasing tongue, eminently interesting to the student in its construction and its honorific forms of expression. It is nevertheless characterised by much terseness and vigour, which at first seems to be a paradoxical statement, but if we take as a chance example the Japanese equivalent of our term "resignation", viz.: Omoi-Kiru—to snip off thought, i.e. to make an end of thinking on the subject—the conciseness is undeniable. Compound verbs of the kind are innumerable. The modern tendency is rather to excise the flowery expressions and to rely on the bed-rock.

"Transcript of the Parish Register of Chesham, 1538-1636." London: Elliot Stock. 1904.

The date 1538 is of supreme importance in parish history. In this year Thomas Cromwell, who took the idea from a recent regulation of Ximenes, a parish bishop, ordered that a record of births, deaths and marriages should be kept in every parish. Before this date scarcely a single register is known to have existed and even after the regulation many of the parishes seem to have neglected obedience. We should be glad to see published transcripts of all the older registers. They are full of history. What for example is the interpretation of the many "nursing children", sent from London, who died in Chesham. Were they sent to this healthy Buckinghamshire village because they were in weak health? Or was there, as has been suggested, a less humane reason? But apart from any explanatory notes the study of the names in any register is a fund of interest which extends beyond the boundaries of the parish into the byways of national history.

"Man's Place in the Universe." By A. B. Wallace. London: Chapman and Hall. 1904. 6s.

In his preface to this cheaper edition Mr. Wallace laments a little that the numerous reviews of his book in the daily and weekly press "while on the whole very flattering as regards the wide interest excited in it" are unsatisfactory because they were the work of literary rather than scientific men. We doubt, however, whether the notices would have been quite so flattering if the reviewers had been of the kind Mr. Wallace desired. The book is certainly full of entertaining matter; ninety-nine educated people out of a hundred would find here a great quantity of information—besides many ingenious theories

(Continued on page xiv.)

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"Literary Influence in British History." By Hon. A. S. C. Canning. London: Fisher Unwin. 1904.

It is difficult to see the value to anyone of so paragraphic a sketch of such a subject, even if it were well written. But what is left to assess in a book which in summing-up Byron lays it down that his "poetical influence was more sensual, enervating and morbidly exciting than improving", and adds that "His poems were more addressed to the indolent, the fanciful and the voluptuous than to the devout, the thoughtful and the intellectual of his fellow countrymen"; and quotes Macaulay's "shrewd remark" in support? As an example of style the judgment of Dickens is typical, "No English writer of his time has equalled Mr. Charles Dickens in arousing most intense interest for the creations of unassisted imagination." What an appalling disregard of dates is involved in the dictum that Disraeli's "works . . . were written apparently as a relief from political business"! Indeed, as criticism, the whole work is childish. Even the host of references to good things said by other people are clumsily strung together.

"Notes on the Natural History of the Bell Rock." By J. M. Campbell. With an Introduction by James Murdoch Edinburgh: Douglas. 1904. 3s. 6d.

This is distinctly an interesting little book, produced in capital style by Mr. Douglas. Mr. Campbell's is not exactly the literary line. He writes with a certain careless gaiety; his form wants finish; but he has really something to say, and his book is well worth reading by those who are interested in the subject of lighthouses. Life in a lighthouse is by no means so dull and forlorn, at least for those who care for noble seascapes and the beauty of cloud and mist, as commonly imagined. Mr. Campbell evidently lived it with strenuousness and delight during his term of service. The Bell Rock lighthouse is one of the finest in the world. It was the work of Robert Stevenson—a "marvellous beautiful structure rising in its strength and loveliness out of the deep." Struck by tremendous seas at times the whole building quivers perceptibly, but is absolutely secure against wind and water.

"A Maidstone Naturalist's Rambles." By J. B. Groom. Maidstone: "The South-Eastern Gazette." 1904. 2s. 6d.

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"Yvette." By Guy de Maupassant. London: Duckworth. 1904. 6s.

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#### LITERARY NOTES.

Publishers are busy either issuing early autumn books or arranging for the publication of the volumes with which they hope to attract the Christmas present-giver. The lists of Nelson, Blackie and Chambers will contain the usual brave

(Continued on page xvi.)

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The first volume of Mr. J. G. Millais' "Mammals of Great Britain and Ireland", illustrated with eighteen photogravures by the author, thirty-one coloured plates by the author, Mr. Archibald Thorburn, and Mr. G. E. Lodge, and sixty-three uncoloured plates will be published by Messrs. Longmans in November.

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Mr. Robert Barr's new volume of stories will appear in a few days. Messrs. Methuen are the publishers. The title is "The Lady Electra". Mr. Le Queux's "The Closed Book" is also on the eve of publication by the same firm.

"A Lady in Waiting" is the title of the Hon. Mrs. Anstruther's new novel which Messrs. Smith, Elder will publish on Tuesday.

The Reminiscences of Mr. Samuel M. Hussey, the well-known Kerry land agent, prepared by Mr. Home Gordon, which should throw intimate light on the Irish land question in the nineteenth century, will be published by Messrs. Duckworth.

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Mr. George Allen will publish next week a book by Mr. G. A. B. Dewar on "The Glamour of the Earth" with four full-page photogravure and other illustrations, and in November Mr. Edward Carpenter's new book on "The Art of Creation".

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To "Canada: Britain's Largest Colony", by Mr. A. L. Haydon, which Messrs. Cassell are adding to their Empire Series, Lord Strathcona will contribute an Introduction.

New periodical enterprises are announced by Messrs. Harmsworth, "The World and His Wife", and by the Bible Society "The Bible in the World".

Mr. Henry J. Drane has in preparation Mr. Tom Browne's Annual, and "Scrap Ironies" by Cyril Hurst, with illustrations by Mr. A. Carruthers Gould—a son of F. C. G. Mr. Drane is also publishing "The White Lady of the Zenana" by Dr. Helen Bouchier.

Messrs. Gay and Bird will publish on the 20th inst. a Dartmoor story called "The Affair at the Inn", by Mrs. Wiggin, Miss Mary Findlater, Miss Jane Findlater and Mr. Allan McAulay, the advance orders for which they announce "exceed their expectations".

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(Continued on page xviii.)

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factor in the art of Wagner, especially the Wagner of the "Ring"; and now it is being cheapened every day. Strauss gives us the crash of breaking crockery in "Till Eulenspiegel", the lowing or braying of sheep—whatever it may be that sheep do—in "Don Quixote", the chattering of Academic critics in "Heldenleben". And now, like a so-called poet, I want to know whether this is art?

When one lays down a sheet of paper and takes up the pen one is sorely tempted to theorise and tell composers what they are and are not to do; one inevitably begins prophesying, although it is never safe to prophesy save about the past. "Thus far and no farther" said old Knut, but the sea crept up and wet his boots and he had to send to Bond Street for another pair. I have plenty of boots at present, but I won't risk wetting them by waiting until the tide of realism flows over them. Simply I will ask what on earth is the use of it all. You go to Kensington Gore, in Mr. B. W. Findon's sense of the word, and slay one of the Academics that crawl there, and you return home and write a symphonic poem on the subject, and your chief point is not the smashing of crockery nor baa-ing of sheep but your victim's dying groan rendered realistically on the trombone. Where does the fun come in? I see neither fun nor beauty nor anything save unimaginative dullness in such tricks. Why pay ten shillings to hear "Till" when for one you can buy enough cheap crockery to amuse you for a whole afternoon? If there are any sheep left in England you can hear their baa-baa for a comparatively small sum spent in railway-fares. To hear the babbling of Academics attend a meeting of the Illiterate Society Musicians. All these things remind me of Dr. Johnson's remark about a woman preaching: "it is like a dog walking on its hind-legs; it is not well done, but you are surprised that it should be done at all". I have no objection to a woman preaching or to a dog walking on its hind-legs, though if the woman walked on her hind-legs (which is, I suppose, what she usually does) and the dog preached I should be more interested; and I have no objection to an orchestra of a hundred highly trained musicians imitating the breaking of crockery or the mewing of cats. But the deep joy that fills our hearts on hearing these things is begotten entirely of surprise, and the same trick rarely surprises you twice and never thrice. And I conclude, therefore, when there are realistic touches in music that seems beautiful to generation after generation, that these touches are either excrescences which we do not consider or are something more than simple imitations of the sounds of birds or beasts or nature.

The cuckoo call in the pastoral symphony is neither here nor there. It is not in the least like a cuckoo "to imitate a squirrel climb up a tree and make a noise like a nut"—and when Beethoven wrote it he was simply amusing himself by weaving it into the code of his slow movement. He did not tell me so himself, having had the misfortune to die before I was born, but I guess that. When we come to Mendelssohn and Wagner the matter is different. They wanted to give in tone the very atmosphere and colour of scenes that had affected them, and they left unused no means of reaching our imagination and setting it to work to add to the effect produced by the sheer music. To predispose us to feel in sympathy with them Mendelssohn gave his picturesque music names and Wagner associated it with visible stage scenes, and then both added these imitations or suggestions of nature so that we can scarcely go wrong. And this seems to me the function of realism in music, and excepting in so far as it fulfils this purpose it is inartistic and futile.

JOHN F. RUNCIMAN.

#### AN HORTATION AND A MEMORY.

I SUBSCRIBE to the general opinion that the stage is a rather tragic profession. To fail in the art of acting, which is of all arts the most directly personal to the artist, is a specially bitter experience; and it is, owing to the glamour of the footlights, and to the consequent rush of persons who have no vocation for the art, an experience that falls to the great majority of mimes. I am sorry for the numberless derelicts

who, down at heel, daily haunt the Strand in the vague hope of something turning up. Yet it is not in them that I find exemplars of the darkest tragedy of their profession. I think there are deeper depths. My heartiest ruth is reserved for certain highly talented and popular mimes. The deepest depths are, as it were, at the top of the tree.

The long-run system is, in itself, sufficient reason for pitying these ladies and gentlemen. It must be horribly tedious and galling for any person with an active mind to repeat nightly, for weeks and months, a certain series of words written by somebody else. How much worse must it be to enact nightly the same part for years and years! Yet that is the common fate of the successful mime. He will have made his success in one strongly-defined part, and thenceforth the managers will have preferred the certainty of his excellence in one "line" to the chance of his proficiency in another. Perhaps he becomes a manager on his own account. Then it is likely that he, unless his love of art greatly preponderate over his fear of bankruptcy, will take the safe path of monotony. The public likes him as it knows him; and the public is slow-witted, averse from change, and probably would not accept him, however good he might be, in a new kind of part; and so the poor man immolates himself, and will continue to immolate himself.

Take, for example, poor Mr. Lewis Waller, who produced a new play last week at the Imperial Theatre. Some time ago he began to be very successful as hero of cape and sword. He beat all competitors in that business. None was of mien so gallant and resolute and daring. None's eye and sword flashed so harmoniously. None could rescue with such neatness and despatch a maiden in distress, or render with such coolness, or such violence, unheard-of services to the King, his master, whom Heaven bless. And so the history of the Imperial Theatre under his management consists of "Monsieur Beaucaire", "Ruy Blas", "Miss Elizabeth's Prisoner", and "His Majesty's Servant", with a swashbucklement by the revered Mr. Crockett in the offing. "Always so dashing" was the fond criticism which the maiden lady in "Quality Street" passed on her nephew. Had he ceased to cause her anxiety, she might have forbidden him her door. "Always so dashing" dodders Britannia over Mr. Waller, and he takes the hint. But at what a cost! Imagine the tedium of being always, year in, year out, dashing, and nothing, but dashing! Nor is it only at nightfall that Mr. Waller's lot seems piteous. Acting is, in a sense, one of the dangerous trades. Psychologists have explained that a man who industriously simulates something must, at length, absorb the simulated thing into his own being. An actor loses imperceptibly, but for ever, a little of his true self, and absorbs a little of an alien self, every time he performs a part. This process would have no ill effects in the case of an actor in a stock company: constant variety in impersonation would give no time for any one radical change in the actor's soul. But Mr. Waller's soul—how much, I wonder, remains of the original article? By this time, Mr. Waller must almost have lost the power to be anything except gallant and resolute and daring. And this disability must be a source of very great inconvenience for him. The conditions of modern life afford so very little scope for a hero of cape and sword. The time is not out of joint, and by a cursed spite there is no outlet for Mr. Waller's desire to set it right. I picture him sallying every morning from his front-door with flashing eye and swinging gait, all alert and mettlesome for some dread emprise in the service of the right. I picture him pausing suddenly in the neighbourhood of Buckingham Palace, and eyeing with eagle glance a mounted policeman who canters by. In another moment there follows a closed carriage, driven at great speed. Mr. Waller's hand flies to the back of the brim of his hat, and he uncovers with a circular sweep. But ah! by Mr. Waller's halidom, the King is in danger—is being spirited somewhither to his hurt by yon varlets. To seize the bridles of the horses, leap through the carriage window, send the treacherous equerry to his last account, shoulder the King and convey him to some place of safety, would be but the work of a moment for Mr. Waller; only . . . Mr. Waller has remembered reality. We leave

him standing on the curb in a picturesque attitude, frowning a terrible frown, and wondering how he will get through the day in this drab world, and longing for nightfall and the footlights. Yes, I have no doubt that I was wrong in supposing that Mr. Waller was bored by his own performance on the stage. But I, certainly, am beginning to be bored by it. Heartfelt though it be, it has through infinite repetition the effect of being mechanical. And, since in art one is concerned only with effect, it is mechanical. I exhort Mr. Waller to try soon, before it is too late, to give us some other performance. Perhaps he never has done, and never could do, anything so well as what he has done in cape and sword drama. But he has done other things admirably, and might do them so again. I exhort him to a course of overcoat and umbrella drama. Better be a bankrupt artist than an ever so prosperous machine.

As for the present play, I have nothing to say about it. I do not understand melodrama. For me the excitement of a play consists in the conflict of characters who give me the illusion that they are alive. In melodrama there is no time for this illusion to be wrought. Everything must be sacrificed for a full series of incidents. And whether one lay-figure will be happily betrothed to another lay-figure, or whether a third lay-figure will succeed in intercepting a letter and running a fourth lay-figure through the body, is for me a matter of total indifference. "His Majesty's Servant" may be good—may be bad—of its kind. If you need a verdict, consult some other critic.

Mr. John Hollingshead will be very much missed by very many people. True, he was, in a sense, a survival. His activities had ceased, and his mind dwelt mainly in the past. But what a curious and delightful mind it was, and how full and various that past had been! Mr. Hollingshead had been an admirable "man of business", but always much more than that; so that he cared little for money in itself, and what is in England generally regarded as the crime of becoming poor was committed by him with perfect composure and cheerfulness. He had always been, indeed, a laughing philosopher. This temperament, though it had not prevented him from achieving very practical results in a very practical manner, had always prevented him from the narrowness and pomposity which usually mark the man of definite achievement. He had a true sense of proportion, and saw himself from above, as it were, and as an unit in a crowd. In fact, he was a cynic. And thus, though in his old age he thought mostly about the past, knowing it better than the present, and talked mostly about it to us, who craved enlightenment, he was never a mere extoller of it. The conversation of the average Nestor is tedious for the same reason that makes it also touching: we are asked to revel in a roseate haze which is not visible to our eyes. John Hollingshead, on the other hand, was always informative and precise. He *showed* the past to us, bit by bit, like a collector drawing this or that tray of things from his cabinet, and taking them and turning them about, one by one, and discoursing modestly about their merits and honestly about their flaws. He was a man without reverence, and therefore without scorn. He was always, in the true sense of the word, an appreciator; and, when he talked about the present—so much as was known of it by him from the outside—his judgment was always as sane as it was original and amusing. Having no idealistic illusions, expecting no more than was reasonable to expect in men and things, and being therefore no prey to disappointment, he was the kindest and most genial of companions—the very embodiment of "a twinkle". London will be the duller for his loss. Perhaps that is the epitaph which he, so deeply a Londoner, would have liked best.

MAX BEERBOHM.

#### THE BEE'S YEAR.

AS one removes the last empty feeder from its gap in the cloth, and covers the loaded frames with warm clothing, the bee's year from its master's standpoint comes to an end. Sometimes when closing up these winged servants of ours for their winter sleep, or so much of it as the fitful English weather allows them,

one has an uneasy sense that house-room and attendance and occasional medical advice may not be an adequate return for the services they render. The harvest of their honey looks such an easy sort of ingathering, beside any that has to be coaxed out of the grudging earth, or garnered with continuous attention from kine or fowl. Out of doors the year's work may consist of no more than a spring cleaning, when the first loads of pollen, flame-coloured and orange, are being carried into the warming hive; the addition of a top story, a deceptive sort of roof-garden, hung with tempting yellow wax, sometime in that shifting and elastic interval between the blossoming of the apple and the oak; then, through the summer, if the weather favour, occasional renewals of the furniture in that story, an exchange of light crates of white wood and wax for the solid sweetness of completed sections, at the seasons when the earth is pressing out its nectar through sainfoin, white clover, scented lime, and heather; and, as the last of these is ended, the removal of the whole roof garden, two or three tiers of it perhaps, a burden as considerable as the arms can lift; and finally, some few weeks later, a stock-taking of what stores are left where the brood was reared, and the making good with melted sugar of any serious deficiency.

Though the calendar may seem a long one, a couple of hours in outdoor labour might easily cover, in a year of plenty, all the attendance required by a hive, not a large expenditure of time to reap what may often prove to be a hundred pounds' weight of reward. But the more exacting duties of a bee-keeper, especially if he keep with a view to profit, are those which occupy him apart from the hive; the preparation of material for the bee, and the reparation of that material, when completed, for the eater. It is when he has to face in his store room sections that hold but a mean quality of honey, embalmed in sticky and repulsive propolis that his labours lose all appearance of disproportion to his profits. Of the varying character of honey the public which consumes it shows no discernment. It has a belief that any comb that seems to contain a particularly rich and glutinous fluid has been filled from the heather, but otherwise its own defective palate and the rhapsodies of poets lead it to regard honey as of one pattern of sweetness, standardised by the bee. In point of fact honey depends no more for its composition on the bee than does coal on the collier; it probably differs more in its character than does any other article of food purveyed under a single name, and is very far from being either always sweet or always wholesome. From what sources the undesirable ingredients are drawn it is by no means easy to say. Honey-dew has been held responsible for all the unseemly liquor that finds its way into the hive, and the frequency with which the bee is to be found on the lime leaf when it is dripping with its black midsummer blight seems to point to honey-dew as the source of the unpleasant fluid, like a thin greenish tar, which is gathered at the same period. But long before the insect of the dew has settled on its favourite leaves, unpalatable brands of honey may be found in the comb, sour enough to be labelled "extra dry" in these golden cellars, but irreproachable in colour and consistency. The oak falls under suspicion of having yielded one of them, for though the oak has not found its way into poetry as a distiller of honey, it is, in its hour, even more observably than the lime, filled with the murmur of innumerable bees. Yet it is really no more than guesswork that denies to its inconspicuous blossoms the virtues of the lime's; they have indeed no pleasant odour, but the "honied-breath" of flowers have apparently no relation to their honied stores, and often such dull and scentless chalices as the fig-wort's are the most generously filled; on the principle, perhaps, that, among women, compels plainness to be entertaining. The sycamore which is the first of the great trees to feed the bee may also be regarded with distrust, but its contribution must be rather insipid than offensive, or it would be conspicuous in sections completed from the apple and the thorn, which have no stronger characteristic than a cloying sweetness, which is not agreeable when a late and abundant blooming makes the nectar of the thorn predominate. A personal antipathy also



condemns the privet, but this may again be a prejudice from its odour.

In England the privet rarely occurs in sufficient abundance to settle the point, but where, as in the south-west of Ireland, the lanes are often choked with its fusty fragrance, its influence could easily be detected were the weather ever sufficiently kindly not to drown the bee. But though the unwelcome ingredients of honey are hard to determine, four or perhaps five of what one may call its legitimate sources can generally be recognised; lime, white clover, charlock—the most uninteresting of all, heather and possibly sainfoin. Seldom of course, save in hives on the moor, is an entire section filled from one kind of flower, but, wherever any of these five crops preponderates for a week, nine-tenths of the supply will be drawn from it, and the resulting flavour can be detected in almost every pound in the super. With propolis, the bee mortar, the public makes or should make no acquaintance, and it is in preventing that acquaintanceship that the bee-master says his hardest things about the bee. It is of a greenish or reddish yellow, amazingly sticky, is reputed to smell like storax but does not in the least, stains everything it touches, is collected from the viscid buds of most trees and shrubs, and is used, as its name suggests, for the improvement, from the builders' point of view, of the bee city. If the employment of idle hands is assigned by the adage to the right agency, the use of propolis is explained; since the busy bee has very little to do with it. When the honey is flowing, the propolis is left on the tree, and the bee remembers neither draughts nor enemies in the bigger question of supply. But whether it be dry, cold, or rainy weather that checks the flow, the bee begins at once to propolise everything he can lay his hands on. He may do so, for all one knows, from a sheer craving for occupation; his lavish conglutination is at any rate of little service to himself. He sticks things together in the hive which are not improved by being united, and, considering his craving for fresh air, he must by this reckless plastering much increase the labour of ventilation. It might almost be stated as an axiom that in any season the hive with the least honey will have the most propolis and be in the worst temper; and that the arrival of propolis in appreciable quantities will always mark some changes in the flow of honey or in the well-being of the hive. Further it does not seem possible profitably to speculate.

M. Maeterlinck in "The Double Garden" refers to an interesting peasant superstition "that the vestal vintagers", as he calls them, "cannot endure the approach of the unchaste, above all of the adulterous". The moral laws of bees do not, one imagines, coincide with ours, nor would the vestal vintagers be likely to prove in such matters more clairvoyant than ourselves. Still, like most country beliefs, the superstition has probably more to support it than our ignorance can explain, but some illumination may be thrown on it from a personal experience. While suffering from insomnia the writer remarked that after a night without sleep it was always unsafe to approach the hives, the bees attacking him in the head while he was still some yards away, though at other times he could handle them with complete security. This seems to show that certain conditions of ill-health must alter or increase the natural exhalations of the body more than is supposed, producing some envelope, which though imperceptible to our senses is, either in odour or appearance, objectionable to the bee. Science has only within quite recent years obtained evidence that the aura, of which second-sight has so long claimed a perception, may really exist as a pathognomonic emanation, and it may very readily be appreciable by the animal world. This emanation will probably differ according to character, and vary according to the condition of mind and body. It seems likely that the effusion from a very lively and passionate nature would be more considerable and assertive than that from a sluggish and impassive temperament. This might explain the dislike which bees manifest permanently to some people, and it is possible that

such people possess the volatile or vehement type of character which lends itself to a disregard of social law. Coupling this with the proved objection of the bee to certain conditions of physical exhaustion, and we have at least a suggestion as to the origin of what at first sight appears to be a mere eccentricity of superstition.

H. F. PREVOST BATTERSBY.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

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Getting and spending, we lay waste our powers.”

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Yours, &c.  
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To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Manchester.

SIR,—Whilst this battle of the words is being waged in your columns, permit me to draw attention to another specimen of the spoiling of English. Many people, and among them not a few writers, constantly use the expression “have got” for “have”, and one will daily hear the remark, “Have you got such and such a thing?” But, surely, the mere “have” implies possession, and “have got” is tautological; it is no better than saying, “I possess in my possession”.

The fact that Shakespeare, for instance, uses “have got” and that Thackeray, again, puts the expression into the mouths of some of his characters, may offer some justification for its adoption colloquially. Nevertheless, as it seems to me, “have got” to denote possession, even if permitted (which it should not be) in the usage of ordinary speech, is decidedly antagonistic to the niceties of literary English.

Yours, &c.  
N. L.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

44 Partridge Road, Cardiff,  
24 September, 1904.

SIR,—There is a phrase very frequently made use of by writers which, to my mind, is very ridiculous,—So and So “has a great future before him”. If it were possible to have a future “behind him” the distinction would be necessary, now it is an absurdity.

Yours obediently,  
W. H. HARRIS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Benwell House, Woodchester, Stroud, Glos.  
19 Sept. 1904.

SIR,—One of the most glaring instances in bad English is the confusion almost invariably shown between the words “procure” and “obtain”.

For general purposes it would be a comfort to lovers of correctness if writers would bear in mind that

\* “The Double Garden.” By Maurice Maeterlinck. London: George Allen. 1904. 5s. net.



"procure" nearly always means to seek, or to try to get; whereas "obtain" means to have succeeded in procuring, and to have attained the possession of.

We should never then read such rubbish as "the best that can be procured" or "I will see if it can be procured".

Yours obediently,

ALBERT B. GHEWY.

#### ULLSWATER AND THE NATIONAL TRUST.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

SIR,—When the National Trust opened its fund in July last for the purchase of over 700 acres bordering on Ullswater you were kind enough to commend the scheme to the notice of your readers.

Will you permit me to report that we have at present received £4,467 16s. of the £12,000 which is required? "A Stroller" has promised £100 if nineteen other individual donations of a similar amount are forthcoming before the end of the year. Of these we now have sixteen, and we are therefore looking anxiously for three more public-spirited individuals to take up the challenge.

In our endeavour to secure the preservation of the natural features of Gowbarrow Fell and the Aira Glen, and to obtain for the public the right to frequent them, to enjoy their beauties and the views they provide, we appeal especially to those who would help in gratitude for a holiday spent in the Lake country; but more generally also to all those who sympathise with the aims of the National Trust in trying to preserve from all possibility of disfigurement some of the most beautiful pieces of British scenery and to throw open their attractions to the landless of all classes whose everyday lives are spent in the more sordid surroundings of our great cities.

Miss Octavia Hill (190 Marylebone Road, N.W.) and Canon Rawnley (Crosthwaite Vicarage, Keswick) are willing to receive donations, or they may be sent to me at the office of the Trust, 25 Victoria Street, S.W.

I am, Sir, yours faithfully,  
NIGEL BOND, Secretary.

#### ORDNANCE MAPS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Broadfield, Boston,

5 September, 1904.

SIR,—I cannot help thinking that the writer of your paragraph on this subject must be unacquainted with the beautiful "contour" maps published by Bartholomew of Edinburgh. These are on the handy scale of two miles to the inch, are printed with exceptional clearness, and a special feature is made of colouring according to contours of altitude. A pedestrian or cyclist travelling with one of these maps in his pocket can nearly always tell at a glance whether he is coming to rising or falling ground, and for my own part I find the method of road differentiation more helpful than that used on the Ordnance maps. For many years I used these latter, and have a great stock by me still, but since the publication of these delightfully interesting maps of Bartholomew's, I have felt compelled to disestablish and disendow the others, and I have no doubt the same thing has occurred to many other road and map lovers.

I am, Sir, yours faithfully,  
W. M. COOPER.

#### "CHRISTOPHER MARLOWE AND HIS ASSOCIATES."

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

4 October, 1904.

SIR,—Whilst thanking your reviewer for the courteous tone of his criticism of the above work I must point out that he has been misled in some particulars. My reference to the curious figures which protrude from

some ancient buildings in Canterbury was not intended to allude to "gargoyles", but to certain quaint carvings, apparently meant for embellishment only and not for utilitarian purposes. In Note 20 it will be seen that I do give my authority for the date of Marlowe's birth. In those days church registers gave the date of baptism only. I did not credit Dyce with the discovery of the entry of Marlowe's baptism, because he was not the discoverer and because he evidently never did personally inspect the register. My work, not being intended solely for the use of antiquaries, does not worry readers with the complications of Old and New Style. In accordance with the practice of most modern historians, I have adopted the New Style throughout in my account of Marlowe. Personal inspection of Corpus Christi College records proved to me that in Marlowe's time students were frequently admitted and were in residence many months before they matriculated. The supposition that Marlowe was supported by Sir R. Manwood's bounty at Cambridge is purely supposititious and was first suggested by Dyce and not by Mr. A. H. Bullen. Although entered, apparently, as a "Parker pensioner", Marlowe gained two scholarships and was, therefore, independent of the pensionership. There is no record of any "Manwood Pension" at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. I did not credit Mr. Sidney Lee with the discovery of the fact that Marlowe had been admitted to bail at the Middlesex Sessions, Clerkenwell, because Mr. Lee did not discover the circumstance but merely copied the statement from the Records edited by J. Cordy Jeaffreson. Reference to the original document, vide facsimile in my book, shows that the translation given by Jeaffreson and adopted by Mr. Lee was very free and imperfect. Since the publication of my work I find that I am not the only student who has had reason to doubt the authenticity of some of the Baker MSS. Let me repeat that my account of "Kit" Marlowe contains numerous data now first published, and others now first published correctly.

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,  
JOHN H. INGRAM.

#### A "DEVIL" STORY.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

6 October, 1904.

SIR,—Among the many hilly counties on the coast of Ireland there is hardly one which has not a Devil's Glen. One of these (I will not specify the locality) is on the estate of a gentleman who happens to be dark complexioned and hot-tempered. The Glen is open to the public on certain days of the week, but not every day. However, on one of the close days, a party of American tourists somehow gained access. As it chanced, the owner was at the Glen and encountered the intruders. "Are you aware that you are trespassing?" he demanded. One of the party, not unnaturally, retorted "Pray who are you that challenge us?" "I am the proprietor" was the reply. "Well—we were told this was the Devil's Glen—but we didn't calculate to meet the proprietor."

Being an Irishman, the "proprietor" saw the joke, and asked the trespassers to luncheon.

Yours, &c.  
D. Y. N.

#### MOORHEN AND WATERHEN.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

4 October, 1904.

SIR,—It will interest your correspondent "M. C. S." to know that in Weardale, a large district in the county of Durham, the red grouse, male and female, is called moorhen, and that the dabchick is nearly always known as the waterhen, without distinction of sex.

Yours, &c.  
J. C.

## REVIEWS.

## CANON HENSON'S POSITION.

"The Value of the Bible and other Sermons." By H. Hensley Henson. London: Macmillan. 1904. 6s.

WHETHER or no they agree with his conclusions, Canon Henson's readers must feel that he has never expressed himself with more vigour and felicity than in these sermons. Nor can they, when the somewhat unfortunate circumstances are borne in mind, fail to recognise that he has done well to publish them. He has embarked upon a controversy in which the constructive side of his teaching is inevitably forced into the background. By devoting two-thirds of this volume to practical discourses, eminently earnest and devout, and in no wise incompatible with his more adventurous positions, he has shown that the concerns of the religious life are the staple of his preaching. And the close connexion into which he brings these two interests, that of free historical criticism and that of practical edification, shows that in his judgment they are mutually helpful.

But if this part of the volume stood alone, its contents would be without the immediate significance which the author desires them to possess. The first seven sermons deal directly with a controversial topic, and the book begins with a letter of considerable length addressed to the Bishop of London in reply to criticisms which he made some months ago at a gathering of the members of Ely Theological College. This letter is written with admirable dignity and reserve, and is as effectual a presentation as is possible of Canon Henson's case. He has the advantage, of which he makes full use, of stating his position in literary form; the Bishop's words, which we will not call an attack, can only be recovered from inaccessible back numbers of the newspapers, and though they were well adapted for their occasion they had not the style and reasoned order of the reply. For purposes of controversy the talents which Archbishop Magee possessed are of especial service, and of them no prominent clergyman of our Church has a greater share than Canon Henson, while the Bishop of London, richly endowed with gifts which, greatly to the Church's loss, were present only in a rudimentary form in the late Archbishop of York, has not had occasion to train himself in the expert use of logical and literary weapons. We must therefore, while appreciating Canon Henson's skill, make a certain allowance for the advantage which his plea has in the manner in which he is able to put it forward. But the Bishop has also slightly prejudiced his case by the occasion which he chose for his utterance. The matter of Biblical criticism is one in which the thoughtful laity are interested quite as deeply as the clergy; more deeply, indeed, than many of the more superficial among the latter. Archbishop Magee knew and shared to a degree rare with ecclesiastics the prejudices of lay minds, and Bishop Winnington Ingram might wisely have remembered his strongly expressed opinions about theological colleges.

The question concerning the two Testaments has entered upon a new phase since the time when, as the older among us are never tired of repeating, Lightfoot won his signal victories, and it is vain for us to imagine that the last generation has left no problem unsolved. The very atmosphere through which we look at our difficulties has been changed by the general acceptance of the critical view of the Old Testament. Not merely is there no surviving opponent of importance; such publications as Dr. Driver's edition of Genesis, as uncompromising as it is reverent, are being widely circulated and accepted without demur. A generation is rising, if it has not risen, which has never regarded the early narratives of that book as literal history; no young theologian at Oxford to-day would explain his position as did an enthusiastic disciple of Liddon twenty-five years ago: "My father does not believe that Balaam's ass spoke; I do." And the study of comparative religion, especially perhaps as exemplified by Mr. E. B. Tylor in his "Primitive Culture", has led to the suspicion that the spiritual progress of the Hebrew race was strictly analogous to

that of other nations; that all alike have struggled by paths which we can trace up an inclined plane towards purer conceptions of the Divine. The weight and the explanatory force of these analogies cannot be denied, and we must make full use of them for the periods of apparently an unaided advance. They account for the normal, but the history of religion is a history of the abnormal as well; and no phenomenon could be more abnormal than the sinless life of Christ in our world.

Nothing can be more satisfactory than the general recognition, outside as well as within the accustomed lines of religious thought, of the unparalleled character of Christ. When we find it gladly and reverently admitted that His assertion of His freedom from sin was true and that this immunity accounts for His influence upon the history of men, we are logically compelled to assign Him an origin higher than our own. Obviously He was not the result of an ordinary line of development, and it would be mockery to regard Him as an accidental variety sprung from the common stock. A sound instinct impels all who approach Him reverently to regard Him in some true sense as different from themselves. This argument has been pressed by Canon Henson. He proclaims eloquently the sinlessness of Christ, and points out how arguments against it which once had weight are being swept away by modern methods. Huxley lingered with unction over the Gadarene swine; the most recent criticism however removes the difficulty by eliminating the miracle from the record. But we would gladly have seen more consideration given by Canon Henson to the relation between Christ, recognised as more than human, and the Author of the phenomenal world. Assertions concerning Him which, if He be only natural, may be safely ruled out of court need not necessarily be untrue if His entry into the world were an act of Divine will and power. In that case it is an exertion of Omnipotence corresponding to the similar exertion which, as we believe, created and maintains the Universe. And it is hardly reasonable to suppose that these two activities, though in different spheres, are hermetically sealed off the one from the other. Rather we should expect an interaction, and Mozley's argument on Miracles, as valid now as thirty years ago, gives us, to say the least, a reasonable explanation of the purpose of such interference. The "empty grave" which, as Canon Henson justly says, might be regarded as an unhistorical imagination if it were that of a merely human Christ, has a different aspect when He is connected in thought with the highest Deity. Not merely as a matter of feeling, but as a matter of reason, it ceases to be difficult to accept as true the record of the means which He employed to present Himself to mankind. This argument, of course, can be pressed too far; but we are certainly justified in demanding that the tests applied to the evidence shall be such as will give valid results in this special case. It is a large and unproved assumption that ordinary historical criteria are applicable. At any rate, they are not always applied with results satisfactory to the critics. The anger which the names of Blass and Ramsay excite seems hardly to be the feeling of victors who can afford to be tolerant. And the tests must be applied to the whole subject of inquiry, and must vary and combine so as to search the whole field. There is nothing in Canon Henson's sermons and letters for which we are more grateful than his emphatic statement of the living power of Christ; a truth to which the great spiritual literature of Christendom bears a witness of singular cogency. This present power and life cannot be separated from that life which is the subject of critical inquiry; we can never be sure of a conclusion reached by isolating part of the evidence and arguing from it. But Canon Henson fixes our attention upon the Gospels and the Creed, and tells us in the language of a profession in which he would have excelled that "the Gospels stand towards the creeds as the volumes of evidence towards a Report". Theological truth is largely truth of atmosphere, and perhaps the atmosphere of a parliamentary committee-room is not that through which spiritual things are most clearly discerned. Coleridge or Maurice would not have expressed himself thus, for they would have included in their survey those wider ranges, less susceptible of

precise dialectical statement and discussion. We do not doubt that Canon Henson, if he were stating fully and deliberately the whole counsel which he wishes to impart to his hearers, would dwell upon the light which the present life of Christ casts upon His historical life; indeed, he has in many places in this and his other volumes dwelt upon them separately and in conjunction. Nor would we dispute his right to detach one member of a complex problem and submit it to a searching test of one particular kind. But we are jealous for his sake lest any of his readers should hastily conclude that Canon Henson employs no higher and deeper criteria in an inquiry of such momentous significance.

#### REFORM AND MR. KIPLING.

"Traffics and Discoveries." By Rudyard Kipling. London: Macmillan. 1904.

FRENCH critics during the last few months have been not a little agitated over the errors of style in Mr. Wells and Mr. Kipling, the two writers who are now taken on the Continent as representative of the best in contemporary English literature. Against Mr. Wells is made good the charge of brutal carelessness in repeating words and phrases. Mr. Kipling is accused of a sort of insular scorn of the broader canons of refinement in literary art. Both are unreservedly praised for the energy and strength of their imagination. But in the case of Mr. Kipling separation of matter and style involves a dangerous disregard of principle. Mr. Kipling is likely to remain a name in English literature as the inventor of a type of short story; and in short stories, though it is not wholly true that "la façon, c'est tout", the interpretation of the incidents and their interest depend almost entirely from the writer's manner. And in Mr. Kipling the manner is individual beyond the common. It is not imitative, though it has been much imitated. Mr. Kipling is apparent through his characters, as is none of the great French writers; and the cardinal question as each new book appears is whether Mr. Kipling himself is developing in the right direction. What has been happening to his talent in the interval, for example, between "Many Inventions" and this book of "Traffics and Discoveries"?

We cannot trace, as some have traced, any loss of power in the telling. "The Bonds of Discipline" is marvellously borne along by the momentum of its own humour. One may call it with phonetic appropriateness a rattling story. It jumps forward as a motor, and, always in its driver's control, tears onward in a stimulating breeze of its own making. It is impossible not to laugh. The notion is essentially ludicrous that the crew of a British cruiser, to whom discipline is an instinct, should convert the vessel into a drama of muddled inefficiency and brutality for the edification of a French spy. The style of the sailor who tells it is an admirable parody of the racy acuteness and odd tendency to latinity in the language of his class. "But it happened" said Mr. Pyecroft. "It transpired in the 'Archimandrite'." That culminating synonym, the triumphant use of the Latin word in the wrong sense, could only have come from the lips of a man of just Mr. Pyecroft's quality. After the same fashion of excellence "The Captive"—an American captured fighting for the Boers—tells his own story with such a rollicking zest in his country's idiom as wholly convinces. He speaks as he would speak if he had energy enough to maintain the rhetoric of the monologue long enough. This power in Mr. Kipling of catching turns of speech and tricks of thought in men of all conditions is rare and valuable. He makes a point of conversing with captives and sailors and stokers on all his journeys, and mercilessly filches from them their idioms and to a less extent their philosophies. Following the bent of his mind he also converses, like McAndrew, with the machinery of ships and engines until he has by heart their names and, to a less degree, their functions. In the proper sense he is conversant with men and things. But many men are caught in the toils of their own capacities, overpowered by their own powers; and as Burton could scarcely speak out of other men's words, though his own style was admirable, Mr. Kipling has allowed

his delighted enjoyment of technical phrase and transliterated brogue to dominate his natural power. He has also another master, an unfortunate desire to preach army reform and, what we may perhaps call "Empirics" through some sort of dramatic form; and between the Charybdis of Empire and the Scylla of his own mannerism, Mr. Kipling, much wandering and wily traveller though he is, finds no way of escape. The attractions of the rival dangers grow towards him; and with each book the fear increases that he will not get as far as he should and could. "Traffics and Discoveries" is not a fine book, but it has admirable bits. "They" may be called a dramatic version of Lamb's "Dream Children" and has a touch of the Elia pathos. For skill in pictorial description the account of the waves as they look from a torpedo boat deck is almost comparable with Ruskin's wave in the "Harbours of England". The waves "shouldered our little hull sideways and passed, scalloped and splayed out, toward the coast, carrying our white wake in loops along their hollow backs. In succession we looked down a lead-grey cutting of water for half a clear mile, were flung up on its ridge, beheld the Channel traffic—full-sailed to that fair breeze—all about us, and swung slantwise, light as a bladder, elastic as a basket, into the next furrow".

We have spoken of the loud laughing humour of "The Captive" and "The Bonds of Discipline". Why is it that these flashes of a power which now and again suggest genius—a word we use deliberately—should lead to the production of so little work good enough to live? Carlyle has spoken with characteristic admiration of a typical Englishman who when faced with a tough thought retired to bed for four days to crack it in quiet but energetic contemplation. We should suggest to Mr. Kipling, if he is too energetic for this form of meditation, that he should not go to Africa more than once a year, that he should avoid America altogether, that he should limit his conversation with all persons acquainted with machinery to an occasional week-end holiday, and should fine himself an amount that would hurt every time he thought of Empire or Army Reform. He has done enough special reporting and special pleading; and it is time he proved himself to be what the best critics in France thought he would be, and the professional Imperialists in England think he is.

#### SHAKESPEARE'S "SMALL LATIN AND LESS GREEK".

"Studies in Shakespeare." By J. Churton Collins. London: Constable. 1904. 7s. 6d.

MR. CHURTON COLLINS prefaces his demonstration of "Shakespeare as a Classical Scholar"—lately reprinted from the "Fortnightly Review" in "Studies in Shakespeare"—with the observation that Ben Jonson's famous line, "and though thou hadst small Latin and less Greek", was the origin of the tradition on which is based the assumption that Shakespeare had little or no claim to classical scholarship. How groundless this assumption is, Mr. Collins has so clearly shown as to aggravate into a positive crime Ben Jonson's offence in writing such a line on such an occasion.

(Continued on page 496.)

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That the line is an offence seems to have escaped everyone's notice in his eagerness for facts. The mere observation by a contemporary that Shakespeare had little Latin and less Greek has been swallowed by critic, editor, and quidnunc, without a word of surprise that so marked a note of detraction should be thus conspicuously misplaced amongst eighty lines of extravagant eulogy. Mr. Collins, indeed, tries to soften the line by arguing, less convincingly than usual, that Jonson "posed ostentatiously as a scholar in the technical sense of the term", and that "to him 'small Latin' and 'less Greek' would connote what it would connote to Scaliger or to Casaubon". It may be so. But that Jonson should so have aired his pedantry at the expense of his good taste is improbable, and in view of the context, almost incredible.

There seems, therefore, some justification for questioning the line itself. How came it there, like a guest without a wedding garment? Surely Jonson had not to go out into the highways and hedges to find a rhyme to "seek"? So perhaps our questions may be answered, if we press them.

What of the text? The line itself seems incapable of emendation, even by Warburton; but we get a glimmer of light from the one following; not by emending, but by restoring the text. For it has suffered an alteration in modern editions of Jonson's works which has perhaps helped to obscure the solution of the difficulty; namely, the substitution of "will" for "would". In the Shakespeare first folio the lines are printed thus:—

"And though thou hadst small Latine, and lesse Greeke,  
From thence to honour thee, I would not seeke  
For names; but call forth thund'ring Æschilus",  
&c.

Now, had this passage been written in Latin, there could have been no doubt as to its exact meaning. But in English it may be read two ways. That is to say, the conjunction "though" may be followed either by an indicative clause, noting a recognised fact; or by a subjunctive clause noting a mere possibility or suggestion. In the one case it would mean "though it is a fact that"; in the other, "even were it the case that". The question to put, therefore, is whether "hadst" is here indicative or subjunctive. If the former, Jonson appears guilty of strange ineptitude. If the latter, the one apparently discordant note in this pean of praise sounds harmoniously with the rest; and whether our notions of the author's pedantry are quite justified or not, we can appreciate his generous spirit in making so neat an allusion, indirect though it be, to his rival's indubitable knowledge of the classics. Further, it may be noted that as this line originated the tradition of Shakespeare's ignorance of the classics, so it is the chief, if not really the only, evidence of Jonson's supposed attitude of pedantry towards Shakespeare. Jonson's scholarship, Mr. Collins writes, "was the distinction on which he most prided himself, and on which, as is abundantly clear, he based, in the true spirit of a pedant, which he certainly was, his chief claim to superiority over his great contemporary". That such a claim was urged may be conceivable; though neither in the "Discoveries", nor in Drummond's "Conversations", is it even hinted at. In the latter Jonson is only reported to have said that Shakespeare wanted art; in the former he makes a candid explanation of a saying of his about Shakespeare, practically to the same effect, that had been misunderstood; and adds enough general praise to refute any idea of personal animosity. As for the allusions in "The Return from Parnassus", it must be remembered that "the pedantic jealousy of the Academic party" would justify much in a topical play which in a personal eulogy would be unpardonable.

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# THE LETTERS OF FAMOUS MUSICIANS.

THERE exists a general and well-founded feeling, a sort of latent understanding as it were, that in matters pertaining to any of the arts, literature, painting, sculpture, music, &c., the standard of merit should be measured by the unanimity or otherwise of expert opinion. In the case of music, the leading feature of recent years has been the introduction of piano-players, of which the most popular is the Pianola. Even among the general public a certain prejudice has existed and always will exist against the purely mechanical in music, and it is natural that this feeling should be intensified among professional musicians. No one appreciated this fact more than ourselves, the manufacturers of the Pianola, and, recognising it, every effort was exerted to make the Pianola of the highest possible artistic excellence, so that, by its aid, one would be enabled not only to play intelligently, but be prevented from playing in such a way as to create a wrong impression in the mind of the auditor. So much having been accomplished, it was possible for us to approach even the most exacting musicians, men whose names are household words, and to ask their opinions of the Pianola.

Since the invention of the Metrostyle Pianola, which provides the interpretations of many of the greatest contemporary pianists and composers for anyone to reproduce, any lingering doubt regarding the artistic value of a Pianola performance has been removed entirely. Within the past three months, many famous musicians who had not previously seen the Pianola in use, have now investigated it, and, without a single exception, they have pronounced the Metrostyle Pianola of the greatest importance to music. It is a matter of importance to anyone who is interested in music to know what the authorities of the musical world have to say about this new idea in piano-forte playing. Accordingly we print a few of the letters received recently. It will be seen that not only do they accept the piano-player idea as a sound one, but give as their unhesitating opinion that the Pianola is the best of all such devices, and that no piano-player is complete without the Metrostyle :

I gladly acknowledge to you my great admiration for your Metrostyle Pianola. That through it the interpretation of an artist is reproduced as though he himself sat at the instrument would appear to me to be really incredulous had I not heard it myself. The thought seems even yet like a fairy tale.

DR. RICHARD STRAUSS.

I consider your Pianola with the Metrostyle an invention of the greatest importance to musical art. My first impression upon hearing an instrument of this kind was that it would be harmful and misleading, but the Metrostyle Pianola has completely changed my opinion, for not only does it play the notes correctly, but with the Metrostyle interpretation is given which is equal to that of an artist. Your success is assured.

JOSEPH JOACHIM.

I have heard the Metrostyle Pianola and consider it most admirable and interesting. Before hearing the Metrostyle I had thought that all such instruments were only machines, but it is indeed surprising what can be done with the Metrostyle in reproducing musical works in the way of giving the intention of the composer. It is excellent.

EDWARD GRIEG.

The Metrostyle Pianola which I have just heard has filled me with admiration and wonder. Although I have heard instruments that play the piano before, I had no idea that it was possible to play with the taste and expression of an artist ; and the Metrostyle, it seems to me, is almost as valuable as the instrument itself. Your success with the Metrostyle Pianola should be very great.

E. HUMPERDINCK.

The Metrostyle Pianola marks an epoch in the history of music. In effect it not only permits everyone, musician or not, to play the most difficult and intricate composition ; but what is more marvellous, it reproduces the personal interpretations of the most celebrated pianists.

This instrument stands in a class by itself, and possesses in the highest degree the musical and artistic qualities which until the present were found only in the virtuoso.

As an accompanist it astonishes one not only by the delicacy of the effects produced, but also by the manner in which it responds to the will and individuality of the player.

MATHILDE MARCHESI.

I have often been asked to express my opinion of the various piano-playing devices, but have refrained hitherto because, apart from their achievements in technique, I did not consider them to possess any real artistic value.

When I heard the Pianola, however, I was immediately convinced that it was an instrument which, in addition to its mechanical perfection, would give great scope to one's musical temperament, and permit one to play with expression and perfect artistic taste.

A minute examination of the qualities of this marvellous instrument has convinced me that the Pianola is unique of its kind, and deserves the high place which has been assigned to it by the most eminent composers and pianists of the day.

C. CHAMINADE.

In the presence of the undersigned and a great number of teachers and scholars of the Royal Academy, Mr. Muetter yesterday conducted in one of the large rooms of the institution, a demonstration of the Metrostyle Pianola. Among the works given, two compositions, namely, the variations of Pachulski, and the variations of Rosenthal, both compositions for the virtuoso of the most extreme difficulty and brilliant effect, were produced. It is astonishing how much freedom of movement can be shown, both as regards dynamic and rhythmic effects by a skilful handling. So far as the limits allow, if indeed any exist, the abilities of this device as compared with the living personal rendition of an artist have reached the highest result obtainable.

JOSEPH JOACHIM.

ERNST RUDORFF.

Professor and President of the Department for Piano and Organ in the Royal Academy for Music in Berlin.

[This letter is of special significance. It records the impression created by a Pianola demonstration given at the Konigliche Akademische Hochschule fur Music in Berlin, perhaps the most famous musical conservatoire in the world.]

When I first heard the Pianola it was difficult to believe that it was not an artist performing, for the difference between its playing and that of other self-playing devices is so great as to be startling.

I sincerely congratulate you, and hope everyone interested in good music will hear the Pianola.

HANS RICHTER.

After hearing the Metrostyle Pianola I gladly acknowledge that this instrument in its artistic perfection has completely surprised me. If one closes one's eyes, one receives the impression of hearing the expressive playing of a virtuoso. With correct handling, a most effectual and correct rendering is possible. It has given me the greatest pleasure to become acquainted with your invention.

FELIX WEINGARTNER.

Apart from its unique achievement in allowing one to play pieces at the tempo of the composer, or whoever has marked the music rolls, the point about the Metrostyle Pianola that struck me most was the fact that the intervention of the Pianola between the performer and the piano did not impair the control over the actual sound production. In truth, it rather simplified the matter, since difficulties of technique being eliminated, the tendency was to devote one's attention solely to the emotional side.

A. C. MACKENZIE.

I heard your Pianola to-day for the first time, and I am intensely interested and astonished at its marvellous performances. It is musical and artistic, and when used in connection with the Metrostyle, simply stands alone, and cannot be classed with any other instrument played by auto means.

Wishing you well-merited success,

HENRY J. WOOD.

You are requested to call and see the Metrostyle Pianola. Full particulars will be sent to anyone who writes for Catalogue A.D.

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